



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

Greene's Elements of English Grammar.

THE
ELEMENTS
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR;

SO ARRANGED AS TO COMBINE THE
ANALYTICAL AND SYNTHETICAL METHODS:
WITH AN
INTRODUCTION FOR BEGINNERS,
AND
VARIOUS EXERCISES, ORAL AND WRITTEN,
FOR THE
FORMATION, ANALYSIS, TRANSFORMATION, CLASSIFICATION,
AND CORRECTION OF SENTENCES.

BY
SAMUEL S. GREENE, A. M.,

PROFESSOR IN THE NORMAL DEPARTMENT, BRIMLEY UNIVERSITY, AND
AUTHOR OF "FUNDAMENTALS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR."

PHILADELPHIA:
H. COWPERTHWAIT & CO.
BOSTON: SHEPARD, CLARK & CO.
1857.

EducT 758.58.400

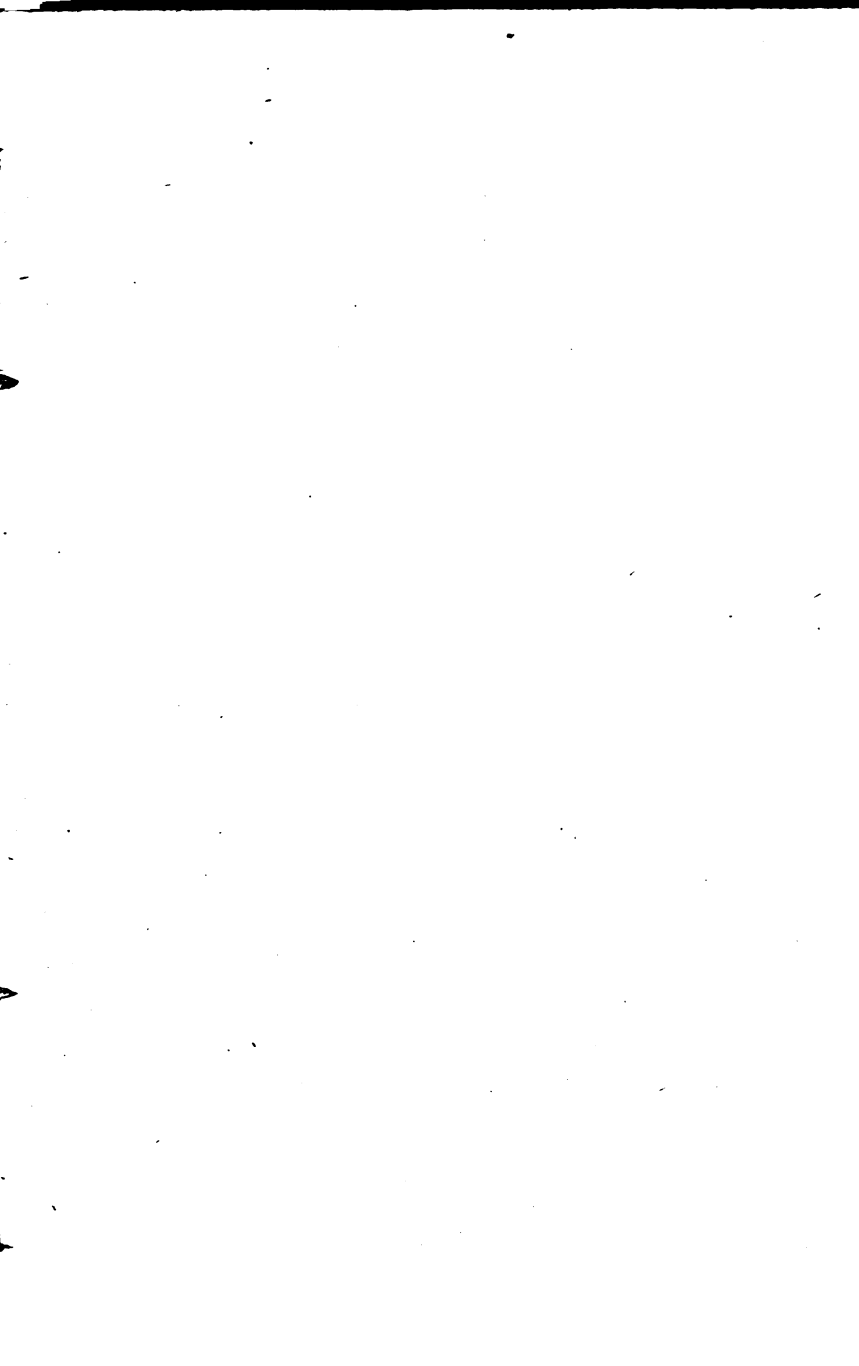


Harvard College Library

FROM



3 2044 097 042 881





THE
ELEMENTS
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR;
SO ARRANGED AS TO COMBINE THE
ANALYTICAL AND SYNTHETICAL METHODS:
WITH AN
INTRODUCTION FOR BEGINNERS,
AND
VARIOUS EXERCISES, ORAL AND WRITTEN,
FOR THE
FORMATION, ANALYSIS, TRANSFORMATION, CLASSIFICATION, AND
CORRECTION OF SENTENCES.

Stillman BY
SAMUEL S. GREENE, A. M.,
PROFESSOR IN THE NORMAL DEPARTMENT, BROWN UNIVERSITY AND
SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, PROVIDENCE.

PHILADELPHIA:
H. COWPERTHWAIT & CO.
BOSTON: SHEPARD, CLARK & CO.
1858.

Edge T 758.58.400

~~Edge T 758.58.400~~

1000, 1000, 1000
1000, 1000, 1000
1000, 1000, 1000
1000, 1000, 1000
1000, 1000, 1000

Entered, according to Act of Congress, in the year 1863, by

SAMUEL S. GREENE,

in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of Rhode Island.

PREFACE.

THE design of this new work — for it is essentially new — is to combine in one treatise all the distinguishing features of the “Analysis” and “The First Lessons.” The departments of Orthography and Etymology are made sufficiently full, and their principles are illustrated by a great variety of examples. Oral Exercises, Exercises for Parsing and for the Correction of Errors, are introduced in their appropriate places, under each part of speech. The Syntax contains all the essential distinctions found in the “Analysis,” but differently arranged, and less rigidly and technically set forth.

In the presentation of a subject like that of English Grammar, the first question which naturally arises is that of the point of view from which it shall be examined. Shall the forms of language be regarded as direct results from thought, as the offspring of an inner impulse? or shall they be looked upon as possessing in themselves, regardless of their origin, all that is necessary to guide to a successful investigation? The one may be called the *interior*, the other the *exterior*, point of view. From the one point, language is regarded as organized under the influence of a *vital, life-imparting* power, determining all its outward forms and manifestations; while from the other it becomes a lifeless frame, to be dissected and examined, for the purpose of ascertaining what it is, and of what it is composed. At one point, the learner is

placod in sympathy with the speaker or writer, in the act of embodying thought, and is allowed, as it were, to inquire why one form is chosen and another rejected ; why one expression, better than another, supplies the inner demand ; whether a single word or a group of words best meets the want, and what the word or group shall be called, not so much from its external features as from the nature of the idea which it denotes. From the other point of view the learner seeks to know what a word or expression is from its external aspect — its termination, position, or from some auxiliary or other outward sign. In one case, an *idea* being given, the problem with the learner is, to find as well an appropriate expression as to decide upon the nature and classification of the latter. In the other case, an *expression* being given, the problem is to determine therefrom its nature and class. In the one case, *expression* is the prominent object of interest ; in the other *thought*, expression being regarded only as the medium of its manifestation.

The author has aimed in the following pages, as far as possible, to take the interior point of view. He has, therefore, required much to be written by the pupil, believing that what is produced by one's own mind is best appreciated and best analyzed. To this end also have the Introduction and Oral Exercises been prepared. Objects in the outer world first attract the attention of the child : they first call forth the desire to speak ; they are ever after his lexicon. Nay, more : they give rise to most of the distinctions in language ; and it is believed that an ingenious teacher would, at the outset, accomplish more in imparting a knowledge of grammar during a single walk in the fields, among the objects of nature, than during a whole week devoted to the abstract definitions of a text book. With children, that which is *seen* is impressive ; a distinction addressed to the eye is indelibly fixed. The *image* or *mental picture* arising therefrom is ever after distinct, awakening the impression of a corresponding outward *reality*. What is *defined* in words

must be committed to memory, as the result of another's judgment; what is *seen* reaches the understanding at once, and defines itself by appealing directly to the discriminating faculty. When visible objects are employed, the teacher is required to *tell* but little; he only *guides, intimates, suggests*; while the learner is *observing* for himself, *discriminating* for himself, *expressing* for himself.

The Introductory Course is intended to be wholly oral. The models are given as specimens of methods which teachers may adopt to evolve grammatical distinctions from external objects. As objects, with all their varieties, attributes, relations, modifications, and distinctions, first evoked in the child the desire to speak, so now they may be most fittingly resorted to as the interpreters of the distinctions found in speech itself. A child of six years already knows enough to distinguish the noun, although he may not know one word of its definition. He knows what an *apple* is; it is an object perfectly familiar to him; its *name* is equally so. The one he can touch, taste, handle; the other he can only speak or write. The one is the *thing itself*; the other its *name*, a mere word, an *object-word*, a NOUN. He can now generalize, and make the same distinction between a *peach*, a *cherry*, a *nut*, an *insect*, a *fish*, a *bird*, or a *quadruped*, and its *name*. He finds nouns wherever he finds objects which he can name. So, again, he knows the *qualities* of objects; he may not know the meaning of the word *quality*, but he knows when an apple is *sweet* or *sour*, *hard* or *soft*, *ripe* or *unripe*, *small* or *large*, *rough* or *smooth*, *red* or *yellow*, *good* or *bad*. He knows that no one of these designates the apple itself, but only something discovered in it. It is only necessary to draw his attention to what he thus knows, and make a skillful use of it. The quality is something *in* the object; the word is something *away from* the object spoken or written — a mere word — a *quality-word* — an ADJECTIVE. He knows when an object *acts*; he can tell when a dog *runs* or *walks*, *growls* or *barks*, *plays* or *fights*; and yet the definition, "A

verb is a word which signifies to be, to do, or to suffer," is to him wholly incomprehensible. It is easy to draw his attention to the difference between the action itself and the mere *action-word* or VERB which represents it. In the same way, all the parts of speech may be easily drawn from the learner's own resources. The teacher thus appeals directly to the *intelligence* of the learner, and not to the authority of a definition. By similar processes, the combination of words into sentences and parts of sentences may be easily illustrated. To do all this, and to prepare the way for the more formal and technical course, is the object of the Introduction.

The author would invite attention to the mode of presenting each of the prominent topics in Orthography and Etymology.

1. An *oral exercise*, in which it is supposed that the learner is about to enter upon a new field of inquiry, is first given. In this nothing is to be taken for granted, nothing presented dogmatically. The pupil's power to *express* what takes place in the common affairs of life is made the basis of those grammatical distinctions, to which the teacher wishes to draw attention. A principle in language being thus evolved, the learner is called upon to express it in his own words; he feels the need of suitable terms.

2. The way is thus prepared for the *definitions* which immediately follow. They give expression to the very distinctions which, in the oral exercise, the pupil has learned to make. They are welcomed as exhibitions of his own thoughts, and not as paragraphs of unmeaning words, to be mastered by the mere force of memory. But the learner is not left here. The ability to make a distinction, or even to embody it in language, does not always insure its universal application. Hence, —

3. Copious and varied *exercises* immediately follow the definitions and remarks. These are intended (1.) to test his ability to *apply* the definitions; (2.) his ability to *produce* illustrative examples; (3.) his ability to *alter* and *adapt*

given examples, in all their varieties and modifications, to the words with which they are connected; and (4.) his ability to *correct* erroneous expressions.

Two classes of errors are given: the first intended to illustrate violations of the principles under consideration; the second, prevailing improprieties of speech, which the rules of grammar may or may not correct. These, though they may seem blemishes on the pages of a grammar, are inserted in the hope that they may draw attention to the importance of cultivating in the school room the spirit of generous criticism. It is the study of the *language*, rather than the technical forms of grammar, that should claim the first attention of the teacher. It being his aim to cultivate the habit of *speaking* and *writing* correctly, it is immaterial whether all the principles of criticism are embodied in a grammar, or are drawn from the known usages of good speakers and good writers. These and kindred exercises, if faithfully attended to, will do more than any thing else to eradicate those incorrect expressions which habit is daily confirming. If it should seem that the examples are too glaring and palpable, it must be said, in reply, that they are mainly actual expressions taken from the lips of children, and that the author has thought it best, at first, to take the most obvious errors, and engage the attention by presenting, not doubtful, but striking examples.

The Syntax is arranged on a plan similar in its spirit to the other parts. It is assumed that a child can best understand a sentence by witnessing its formation. Hence, —

Under the head of Construction, the learner commences with the foundation of the sentence, and from this most favorable point of view he witnesses the progress of its structure, from its commencement to its completion. As the parts are added one by one, he notes the effect of each, and feels that each supplies a want and fills a vacancy demanded by the unfinished structure. In no other way so well can the peculiar force of the elementary parts be appreciated. Hav-

ing learned to combine every form and condition of the elements, whether with their relations expressed or unexpressed, he commences, under the head of Analysis, the opposite process of taking the structure in pieces, and pointing out all the peculiarities of its parts. Thus by the two processes any child of ordinary capacity must become acquainted with the general features of a sentence, whether considered as a whole, or in respect to its component parts. The way is now prepared for the Rules and principles which apply to the more minute details of construction. Various Cautions, intended to guard the learner against prevalent errors in common conversation, are interspersed among the rules. They are to be used in correcting errors. Under the head of Peculiarities and Idioms, a few of the anomalous and peculiar expressions which perplex the learner are collected and explained.

The author has thought it best to indicate the prominent idea in the paragraphs to be committed to memory by *Italics*, rather than to insert printed questions. The teacher can then vary the questions to suit the wants of the learner; and the learner will follow the guidance of the subject rather than that of the questions. The paragraphs in large type are intended as a *first course*, to be committed to memory by the learner. The Remarks in smaller type are intended as a *second course* for the more advanced pupil. Any parts of this second course may be studied or omitted, at the discretion of the teacher.

The author takes this opportunity to acknowledge his indebtedness to many friends, mostly teachers, whose suggestions and words of encouragement have induced him to prepare this work, in the hope that it may supply such defects as were found in his other books, and may prove a complete and convenient text book on the subject of grammar.

S. S. GREENE.

PROVIDENCE, June, 1853.

CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTORY COURSE.

	PAGE
LESSON I. Objects,	xiii
II. Criticism,	xv
III. Qualities of Objects,	xvi
IV. Actions of Objects,	xix
V. Ideas and Words, or Expressions of Ideas,	xx
VI. Qualities of Actions,	xxii
VII. Relation of Objects,	xxiv
VIII. Classification of Words,	xxv
IX. Combination of Words,	xxvi
X. The Proposition,	xxviii
XI. The Proposition enlarged,	xxix
XII. Implied Relations,	xxxiii

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Definition and Division,	1
--------------------------------	---

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Elementary Sounds. — Oral Exercise,	2
Classes of Elementary Sounds,	2
Table of Elementary Sounds,	3
Letters. — Oral Exercise,	4
Classes of Letters,	5
Combination of Letters,	6
Syllables. — Oral Exercise,	8
Words as the Representatives of Sounds,	9
Derivation. — Rules for Spelling,	10
Spelling,	11
Primitive Words,	11
Derivative Words,	11
Prefixes. — Rules I. II.,	12
Suffixes. — Rules I. II. III.,	15
Rules for the Use of Capital Letters,	18

ETYMOLOGY.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS,	18
PARTS OF SPEECH,	19

NOUNS ,	20
Classes of Nouns,	21
Person,	22
Number,	23
Formation of the Plural,	23
Remarks on the Number of Nouns,	25
Gender,	26
Case. — Oral Exercise,	28
Declension of Nouns,	29
Parsing,	30
ADJECTIVES . — Oral Exercise,	33
Classes of Adjectives,	33
Articles,	34
Pronominal Adjectives,	35
Numeral Adjectives,	36
Qualifying Adjectives,	36
Comparison of Adjectives. — Formation of the Comparative and Superlative,	37
PRONOUNS . — Oral Exercises,	39
Classes of Pronouns,	41
Personal Pronouns,	41
Declension,	42
Relative Pronouns,	45
Simple Relatives,	46
Compound Relatives,	47
Interrogative Pronouns,	48
VERBS . — Oral Exercise,	50
Classes of Verbs,	52
Voice. — Oral Exercise,	54
Mode. — Oral Exercise,	57
Participles,	59
Tense. — Oral Exercise,	63
Tenses in all the Modes,	67
Forms of the Verb,	69
Forms for each Division of Time,	70
Auxiliaries,	72
Conjugation of Auxiliaries,	73
Formation of Tenses,	73
Indicative Mode,	73
Potential Mode,	76
Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive,	78
Number and Person of the Verb,	79
Conjugation,	79
Of the Verb "to be,"	80
Of the Verb "to love,"	84
Interrogative and Negative Forms,	89
Synopsis. — Progressive Form,	90
Synopsis. — Emphatic Form,	90
Forms for each Division of Time combined. — Verb "to make,"	91
Irregular Verbs,	92
Defective Verbs,	96
Impersonal Verbs,	96
ADVERBS ,	99
Classes of Adverbs,	100
Conjunctive Adverbs,	101
Comparison of Adverbs,	101
PREPOSITIONS ,	102
CONJUNCTIONS ,	104
Classes of Connectives,	106
INTERJECTION ,	108

SYNTAX.

Oral Exercise,	110
----------------------	-----

I. CONSTRUCTION — *Sentence-making.*

SECT. I. SIMPLE SENTENCES. — WORDS. — RELATIONS UNREPRESENTED,	111
A. Subject and Predicate Unmodified,	111
B. Subject Modified. — Oral Exercise,	112
Various Kinds of Complex Subjects,	113
C. Predicate Modified. — Oral Exercise,	116
Various Kinds of Complex Predicates,	116
D. Subject and Predicate Modified,	118
SECT. II. SIMPLE SENTENCES. — PHRASES. — RELATIONS REPRESENTED,	119
A. Subject and Predicate not Modified,	120
B. Subject Modified,	122
C. Predicate Modified,	124
D. Subject and Predicate Modified,	126
SECT. III. COMPLEX SENTENCES. — CLAUSES. — RELATIONS REPRESENTED,	127
A. Sentences having a Subject and Predicate only,	128
B. Subject Modified,	129
C. Predicate Modified,	131
D. Subject and Predicate Modified,	134
SECT. IV. COMPOUND SENTENCES. — SIMILAR PARTS COMBINED,	134
CASE I. Coordinate Elements,	135
CASE II. Coordinate Clauses,	137
Elements,	138
Classes of Elements,	138
Relation of Elements,	142
Entire Sentences,	144
Interrogative Sentences,	144
Transformation of Sentences,	145
I. Altered Constructions,	145
II. Elements Suppressed. — Ellipsis,	147
III. Elements Transposed,	148

II. ANALYSIS.

General Directions,	149
Models for Analysis,	151
I. Elements with the Relations Unrepresented,	151
II. Sentences with the Relations Represented,	153
III. Complex Sentences,	154
IV. Sentences having Coordinate Parts,	158

III. RULES FOR CONSTRUCTION.

RULES, CAUTIONS, AND REMARKS,	161
RULE I. Subject,	161
II. Attribute,	162
III. Pronoun,	164
IV. Verb,	167
V. Adjective,	169

VI.	Apposition,.....	172
VII.	Possessives,.....	174
VIII.	Objectives,.....	176
IX.	Adverbs,.....	177
X.	Interjection and Nominative Independent,.....	179
XI.	Coordinate Conjunctions,.....	180
XII.	Agreement of the Verb and Pronoun,.....	181
XIII.	Preposition,.....	182
XIV.	Object of the Preposition,.....	183
XV.	Subordinate Connectives,.....	184
	Abridged Propositions,.....	185
	Subject in the Abridged Expression,.....	187
	Predicate, Noun, or Pronoun,.....	187
XVI.	Infinitives,.....	187
XVII.	Participles,.....	189

PECULIARITIES AND IDIOMS.

I.	CLASSIFICATION AND USES OF WORDS AND SENTENCES,.....	191
	A. The Same Word as Different Parts of Speech,.....	191
	B. The Same Part of Speech in Different Relations and Uses,.....	192
	C. The Same Word, Element, or Sentence in its Different Properties,.....	194
II.	PECULIARITIES IN THE FORM, CONSTRUCTION, AND APPLICATION OF WORDS,.....	197
	Figures of Etymology,.....	197
	Figures of Syntax,.....	198
	Figures of Rhetoric,.....	200
III.	IDIOMATIC CONSTRUCTIONS,.....	202
IV.	STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES,.....	206

PUNCTUATION.

I.	POINTS USED WITHIN A SENTENCE,.....	207
	Comma,.....	207
	Colon and Semicolon,.....	210
	Dash and Parenthesis,.....	211
II.	POINTS USED AT THE CLOSE OF A SENTENCE,.....	212
	Period,.....	212
	Interrogation Point,.....	212
	Exclamation Point,.....	212
	OTHER MARKS USED IN WRITING,.....	213

PROSODY.

Definition,.....	215
Verse,.....	215
Feet,.....	215
Scanning,.....	216
Iambic Verse,.....	216
Trochaic Verse,.....	218
Anapaestic Verse,.....	218
Dactylic Verse,.....	219
Poetic Pauses,.....	219

INTRODUCTORY COURSE FOR BEGINNERS.

LESSON I.

OBJECTS.

THE world in which we live is full of objects, as *trees shrubs, flowers, grass, rocks, stones, metals, houses, barns valleys, rivers, brooks, springs, oceans, seas, lakes, ponds, oxen, horses, sheep, birds, insects, reptiles, mountains, hills, pools*; in all, a multitude so great that one could not count them in a lifetime.

Lessons on objects may be conducted after the following

MODEL.*

Teacher. (Pointing to the object.) What is this?

Pupils. (In concert or separately.) The platform.

Teacher. Now, write upon your slates near the top, NAMES OF OBJECTS. (The teacher does the same on the blackboard.) Under this, write *Platform*, commencing it with a capital letter, and placing a period (.) after it. Now, which is the object?

Pupils. (All point to the platform.)

Teacher. Which is the *name* of the object?

* DIRECTIONS TO THE TEACHER. — 1. Let the class be so arranged that each member can see the object pointed out. 2. Ask, while pointing to it, "What is this?" 3. When the pupil has named it, write the name distinctly on the board. 4. Let each point out, first the *object*, and then its *name*, on the board. 5. Follow some *order* in the selection of objects, such as *size, similarity, or location*. 6. At first, let each exercise be written by every pupil. 7. After the few first lessons, let some member of the class point out the objects, enjoining on him the observance of *order*. 8. At length, let each member silently select for himself a given number of objects. 9. In reviewing, let each scholar give in turn, orally, the names of objects in the room, taking care that no object shall be repeated. 10. Should the teacher find (as he undoubtedly will) that the children have either no names, or incorrect, or perverted names for common objects, let the correct name be given. 11. Encourage the habit of observation and the spirit of inquiry respecting all common objects. 12. Continue the exercise till all the objects in the school room are exhausted; then take objects out of the room. 13. When entire objects have been examined sufficiently, commence analyzing objects, and pointing out their parts. Each part is an object. 14. The term *object-word* may gradually be displaced by the word *noun*. 15. At first, let the attention be drawn more forcibly to the *object* than to the name; but at length let the name, as an *object-word*, a *noun*, become the more prominent. 16. Let the exercises be multiplied and varied by the teacher, till the object of the true basis of distinctness is secured.

Pupils. All point to the blackboard or their slates, (thus showing that they know the distinction.)

Teacher. (Pointing to the first object at the end of the platform, so as to proceed in order.) What is this?

Pupils. Bookcase.

Teacher. Write the word bookcase under *Platform*, placing the first letter directly under the first letter of that word. Now, since *platform* and *bookcase* are names of objects, what shall we call these words?

Pupils. (All hesitate.)

Teacher. May we not call them *object-words*?

Pupils. (All give assent.)

The lesson, when carried to six objects,—quite enough for the first,—will stand thus:—

NAMES OF OBJECTS.

Platform.

Bookcase.

Chair.

Settee.

Desk.

Table.

The same lesson may be written in lines so as to form a paragraph. The first word should begin with a capital, the rest (unless some are proper names) with small letters; a comma should separate the words; a period should be placed at the end. Each pupil should be made to feel responsible for a strict observance of all these rules of criticism. Neglect now will be likely to result in neglect through life. The lesson will stand thus:—

NAMES OF OBJECTS. Platform, bookcase, chair, settee, desk, George, box, table, umbrella, &c., &c.

EXERCISES.

I. (1.) *What articles are made by a jeweller, a tailor, a milliner, a carpenter, a cabinet maker, an upholsterer, an optician, a blacksmith? What do you call each NAME that you have given? Why?* (2.) *What articles do we use for food, drink, clothing, building, sewing, knitting, hunting, fishing, cooking? What do you call each word that you have used? Why?* (3.) *What articles may be found in a parlor, a dining room, kitchen, closet, garden, church, hardware store, paper mill, grist mill, printing office, dry goods store? What do you call each name? Why?* (4.) *What are the names of the various trees, plants, shrubs, flowers, fishes, reptiles, birds, domestic animals, nuts, fruits? What do you call each word that you have used? Why?*

II. (1.) *Mention all the parts of this room; of the door, of the window the stove, the table, a chair, a pin, a book, a watch, a portfolio, a ship, a*

writing desk. (2.) Of a hat, a coat, a bonnet, an apron, a dress, a boot, a stocking. (3.) Of a wagon, a harness, a horse, a whip, a bug, a scythe, a boat, a barn, a wheel, a steam engine. *What do you call each word which you have used? Why?*

III. (1.) *What do you call the following words:* Pen, wafer, card, coal, flour, paper, pencil, thermometer, eye, hair, nose, mouth, teeth, tongue, ear, chin, cheek, lip, eyelid?

LESSON II.

CRITICISM.*

In writing exercises upon the slate or paper, the pupil should be careful, (1.) to select his objects in an *orderly* manner; (2.) to *spell* correctly; (3.) to *use capitals* correctly; (4.) to write *legibly* and *neatly*, that is, to observe uniformity in the size of the letters, to be careful to cross the t's, dot the i's, and to preserve a horizontal direction of the lines; (5.) to *punctuate* correctly.

MODEL FOR CORRECTION.

names of objects.

floor
Desk
selling
Winder
ink,
t_a
n_d

The teacher, having transferred some faulty exercise like the above from the slate of a pupil, calls the attention of the class to it in the following manner:—

Teacher. How many of you see any thing wrong in this?

Pupils. . (All hands are raised. Each is eager to speak.)

Teacher. (Naming a pupil.) Mention one error.

Pupil. . The heading begins with a small letter, and has no lines drawn under it.†

* DIRECTIONS TO THE TEACHER.—1. Let the teacher at first examine each written exercise carefully. 2. Mark and draw attention to each minute error. 3. Encourage the members of the class to criticize each other—always in the spirit of kindness. 4. Let the scholars exchange slates, and correct each other's errors. 5. Let this habit of criticism be extended to all written and oral exercises, especially when the pupils begin to combine words.

† See note p. xvii.

Teacher. (Naming another.) What else is wrong ?

Pupil. . The objects are selected without order.

Teacher. What else ?

Pupil. . The words *floor*, *ceiling*, and *window* are misspelled.

Teacher. Is anything else wrong ?

Pupil. . The words *floor*, *ceiling*, and *inkstand* begin with small letters.

Teacher. Who can see any other error ?

Pupil. . There are no periods at the end of the words.

Teacher. (Having corrected the errors as they have been pointed out.) Does any one discover another error ?

Pupil. . The words are written in a disorderly manner.

Let such exercises be repeated, as often as may be necessary, to establish habits of care and critical examination of every written exercise. When children are *trained* to habits of accuracy, neatness, and precision, they will know no other.

LESSON III.

QUALITIES OF OBJECTS.*

If we hold a piece of glass before our eyes, we *can see through it* ; but if we hold a slate in the same manner, we *cannot see through it*. We say of the glass, because we can see through it, it is *transparent* ; and of the slate, because we cannot see through it, it is *opaque*. Neither transparent

* DIRECTIONS TO THE TEACHER. — 1. In writing, at first let the class use the full form, as in the first model : "The sponge is *opaque*," "The sponge is *flexible*," &c. After a little time they may use either of the contracted forms. 2. As this exercise will be found exceedingly suggestive, the teacher should first show that the word is called a *quality-word*, (adjective,) because it denotes a quality, and is on that account to be distinguished from an *object-word*, (noun.) He should then aim to awaken in the child an appreciation of the uses which we make of objects in the arts on account of their qualities ; show also how we *classify, compare, contrast, measure, weigh*, &c., &c. 3. When it is wished to illustrate some quality, as *adhesive, brittle, aromatic*, some object is brought in, which contains it, and by an appropriate experiment the child's attention is fastened upon it. 4. Whenever a quality cannot be made to appear directly, the opposite should be exhibited by way of contrast, and the attention of the pupil should be directed to the prefixes employed, as *elastic, inelastic, flexible, inflexible, sound, unsound, ripe, unripe*. 5. But in all this, let it be the teacher's ultimate aim to make the distinction between the *adjective* and *noun*. 6. When the pupil has become sufficiently acquainted with qualities, let him write the name of the quality and the name of the object together, thus : "*Porous sponge* ;" "*White paper* ;" "*Green corn*." Also let him explain the effect of the quality-word upon the object-word. 7. He will now be prepared to show the effect of such words as *this, that, one, two, three*, &c., which do not express quality, but yet produce certain effects upon an object-word ; as, "*Three books* ;" "*This hat* ;" "*Every boy*." 8. Let the learner now be told that the term *adjective* applies to all the words which may be added to a noun, whether they denote quality or not. 9. When objects are compared, let them be placed side by side in the presence of the class ; when classified, let the objects actually be selected according to some quality, as *white, red, transparent* &c.

nor opaque is any thing apart from the object. We cannot see *transparent*, nor take it in our hands as a *thing*, or a part of a thing. It is what we discover in the glass. It is an attribute of the glass, which we call a *quality*.

MODEL.

Qualities of a sponge.

Teacher. (The teacher takes a piece of dry sponge in his hand, and holds it up before the class.) What is this?

Pupils. . A piece of sponge.

Teacher. Write "QUALITIES OF THE SPONGE" on your slates. (Then holding it to his eye, he attempts to see through it.) What can you say of the sponge?

Pupils. . It is *opaque*.

Teacher. Now write upon your slates, "The sponge is *opaque*;" commencing the expression with a capital letter, placing a period at the end, and drawing a line under "*opaque*," thus, *opaque*.* (The teacher writes upon the board at the same time, as a model for the class.)

Pupils. . (All write upon their slates.)

Teacher. Now, where is the quality?

Pupils. . (All point to the sponge.)

Teacher. Where is the *word* which names or denotes it.

Pupils. . (All point to their slates or to the blackboard, thus distinguishing between the *word* and the *quality*.)

Teacher. Now, which is the object?

Pupils. . (All point to the sponge.)

Teacher. And where is the quality *opaque*?

Pupils. . (All point to the sponge again.)

Teacher. But is the sponge both the *object* and the *quality*?

Pupils. . Sponge is the object, and the quality is found in the sponge. (Thus a distinction is made between an *object* and its *qualities*.)

Teacher. (The teacher bends the sponge.) What can you say of the sponge because it bends?

Pupils. . It is *limber*.

Teacher. Yes, it is *limber*. Who can give a better word?

Pupils. . (No one speaks.)

Teacher. When any thing bends, we say it is *flexible*. Pronounce the word, and write, "The sponge is *flexible*."

Pupils. . (All speak the word, and then write as directed.)

Teacher. (The teacher now removes the pressure from the sponge, and it suddenly returns to its original form. He experiments with a piece of lead or wax in the same way, and shows that neither

* The pupil should now be told that, in *writing*, a word is especially distinguished by drawing a line under it; in *printing*, by using the *italic* letter; in *speaking*, by placing stress of voice upon it. Headings are distinguished by drawing two lines under them.

returns to its former state after the pressure is removed.) What can you say of the sponge because it comes back to its original form?

Pupils. . It is *springy*.

Teacher. Who can give another and a better word?

Pupils. . One pupil raises his hand, and says, *elastic*.

Teacher. Right; all may say *elastic*, and then write, "The sponge is *elastic*." Now, since the words *opaque*, *flexible*, and *elastic* are applied to *qualities*, and not to objects, what shall we call them?

Pupils. . Quality-words.

Teacher. Right; what kind of words then are *porous*, *absorbent*, *light*, *moist*?

The lesson, extended to five qualities, — quite sufficient for the first, — will stand, —

The sponge is *opaque*.
The sponge is *flexible*.
The sponge is *elastic*.
The sponge is *porous*.
The sponge is *absorbent*.

Or thus: —

The sponge is { *opaque*.
flexible.
elastic.
porous.
absorbent.

Or thus: The sponge is *opaque*, *flexible*, *elastic*, *porous*, and *absorbent*.

EXERCISES.

I. What qualities has a piece of India rubber, chalk, whalebone, wax, paper, lead, pine wood, silk, broadcloth? What do you call each word you have used? Why? Write out each example as in the model. In the examples, tell which is the object-word, and which the quality-word.

II. In the same manner, mention the qualities of an apple, an orange, a piece of glass, a feather, a watch spring, a piece of granite, velvet, ivory, leather, charcoal, fur. What kind of words have you used? Why?

III. Mention five objects that are white, and thus CLASSIFY them; five that are green; five that are yellow; five that are transparent; five that are opaque; five that are porous, &c.

IV. Mention four objects that are soft, also four that are hard, and thus CONTRAST them; four that are warm, and four that are cold; four that are flexible, and four that are inflexible; four that are elastic, and four that are inelastic; four that are sweet, and four that are sour, &c. In Exercises III. IV., what words have you used — object-words, or quality-words?

V. Mention two objects that are equally long, short, smooth, fair, old, white, and thus COMPARE them; also two, one of which is longer, shorter, smoother, &c., than the other; also several objects, one of which is longest, shortest, &c.

VI. How many fingers have you? How many books, slates, knives, apples, &c., and thus NUMBER them? What are the words which you have used? Why do you call them adjectives?

VII. Tell which of the following words are nouns, and which adjectives, and thus CLASSIFY them: ink, black, coal, white, paper, carpet, soft young, stove, red, pencil, smooth, sharp, dull, steel, iron, hot, cold, book, bottle, road, wafer.

LESSON IV.

ACTIONS OF OBJECTS.*

Among the millions of objects which we see, all those that are alive have the power to *move* or *act*, and are classed as *animate*; some others, as water, clouds, clocks, watches, &c., move when acted upon. All these movements are called *actions*. Thus a dog *runs* a bird *flies*. Now, *runs* or *flies* is not any thing apart from the object, (see "Qualities of Objects;") it is only an attribute, which we call an *action*, just as we called another kind of attribute a quality.

MODEL

Teacher. (The teacher says, Look yonder!) What is that?

Pupils. . (All answer.) A dog.

Teacher. What does he do?

Pupils. . He *bites*.

Teacher. And what do you see him do now?

Pupils. . He *barks*.

Teacher. And what now?

Pupils. . He *growls*.

Teacher. And what now?

Pupils. . He *eats*.

Teacher. And what now?

Pupils. . He *drinks*.

Teacher. Now write upon your slates "The actions of a dog;" and underneath this heading write, "The dog *bites*;" and underneath that, "The dog *barks*." Now, where is the action?

Pupils. . (All point to the dog.)

Teacher. Where is the word which expresses the action?

Pupils. . (All point to their slates, or the blackboard.)

Teacher. Now, which is the object?

* DIRECTIONS TO THE TEACHER.—1. At first it will be well for the teacher to perform some act himself, as *writing*, *walking*, or *speaking*. 2. Let him next suppose some object to move; as a *fish*, a *bird*, an *insect*, and let the pupils be required to write any actions of which it is capable. 3. Let the full form at first be used; as, "The dog *bites*;" "The dog *barks*," &c.; afterwards employ the contracted forms. 4. As an oral exercise, think of some animal, and let each child, in turn, give one action of which it is capable. 5. When the children have become sufficiently familiar with the distinction, the word *verb* may be substituted for action-word. 6. When the pupils have advanced sufficiently far to see that some words are called verbs which do not express actions, they are prepared for a lesson like the Oral Exercise, on p. 50. 7. In all the exercises carefully observe the rules of criticism.

Pupils. . (All point to the dog.)

Teacher. And where is the action?

Pupils. . (All point to the dog.)

Teacher. But is the dog both the object and the action?

Pupils. . The dog is the object, and the action is seen in the dog, or is performed by him.

(Thus a distinction is made between an action and a word, and between an action and an object.)

Teacher. Now, since the words *bites*, *barks*, *growls*, &c., are applied to actions, and not to objects themselves, what shall we call these words?

Pupils. . *Action-words.*

The lesson, extended to five actions, will stand thus:—

The dog *bites*.
The dog *barks*.
The dog *growls*.
The dog *eats*.
The dog *drinks*.

Or thus:—

THE DOG	{	<i>bites.</i>
		<i>barks.</i>
		<i>growls.</i>
		<i>eats.</i>
		<i>drinks.</i>

Or thus:—THE DOG *bites*, *barks*, *growls*, *eats*, *drinks*

EXERCISES.

I. *What actions can be performed by a horse, a man, a child, a trout, a robin, a toad, a grasshopper, a cricket, a soldier, a sailor, a shoemaker, a farmer, a musician? What words have you employed? Why?*

II. *What objects can sing, run, play, whistle, sleep, fly, write, study, ride, walk, swim, float, sink, burn, freeze, melt, thaw? What words have you used? Why?*

III. *Tell which of the following words are nouns, which are adjectives, which are action-words, or verbs: Ship, mast, white, prow, ploughs, moves, sinks, boat, writes, shines, son, moon, drive, map, blows, buttons, sews, flexible, plane, plain.*

LESSON V.

IDEAS AND WORDS, OR EXPRESSIONS OF IDEAS.

When an object, as a hat, is placed before us, we say *we see it*; but when it is removed, and we continue to think of it, or call it to mind after thinking of something else, we say *we seem to see it*. It is as though the mind had an eye, and

could see something just like the real hat. It appears to be in the same place, it has the same form, it is in every way just like it, only it may not be as distinct. That which we seem to see is to the eye of the mind what the real hat is to that of the body. It is a kind of *image* or *picture* of the real hat, and is called an *idea*.

EXERCISE.

I. Now, suppose yourselves at home by the fireside. Think of all the objects in the room, until you get distinct pictures of them. Let them seem to you just as if you were there; then write their names in order, as you would do if you were there, or as you did in Lesson I. Now, suppose yourselves in a garden, a barn, a street, a field, a church, a mill, on a mountain, in the open air in a clear night, in a meadow, at sea, in a forest, and do the same.

II. Mention any qualities of the objects which you seem to see in them.

III. Mention any actions which you seem to see any of them perform.

But when we have formed definite ideas of objects, we need some way to inform others what we have in our minds. When an object, as a dog, is before our eyes, we can point to it, and without saying a word, show to others what we wish them to see. But when we have only the *idea*, or *picture* before the eye of the mind, however distinct and *impressive* that may be to us, we cannot show it to others. It can be seen only by our mental eye. In that case we must resort to signs, as will be seen in the following

MODEL.

Teacher. I have a distinct picture, or image, of a beautiful object before my mind's eye. I seem to see its form and colors. Do you see it?

Pupils. We do not know what it is.

Teacher. (The teacher takes from his desk a rose, and holds it up before the class, then places it back in the desk.) How many now know what it is?

Pupils. (All raise their hands.)

Teacher. Now, I will give you a *signal*, and let us see, when I give it hereafter, if you cannot call up the picture of the rose, so that all of us may be thinking of the same thing.

(The teacher now gives some signal, as a motion of the hand, snapping the fingers, or touching the table, to which all agree as a signal to call to mind the *rose*, and, after turning the thoughts

of the class upon something else, for a few moments, he suddenly introduces the signal.) What do you think of now?

Pupils. The rose.

Teacher. Now, though you cannot see the picture of the rose in my mind, you have one in your own. And the signal tells you just when to call it up. Now, I have another beautiful picture in my mind. Do you know what it is?

Pupils. We cannot tell without a signal.

Teacher. I will give you a signal. (Here the teacher introduces a new signal, such as snapping his fingers twice, or making some new motion without any previous warning, and asks,) What new picture have you now in your minds?

Pupils. (All hesitate; finally one says,) We cannot tell what the signal means.

Teacher. Why can you not tell what the signal means now, as well as before?

Pupils. Because we did not understand beforehand what it was to be the signal of.

Teacher. Then, in order to make a signal good, there must be a mutual understanding among those who use it; and then any outward sign may enable us to call up our ideas. We must, therefore, have a sign for a *house*, a sign for the *sun*, a sign for the *moon*, and a sign for every other object around us. Would such signs as I have given be good for every object?

Pupils. We could not make signs enough with our fingers for every object. (Here let the class give such thoughts as they may have about these signs.)

Teacher. Instead of a motion of the hand, or a rap upon the table, if I should make a sound from my mouth, would that be a signal?

Pupils. It would, if we all agree to it.

Teacher. (The teacher makes some sound from the mouth, for the rose.) How many will take this as a sign for the rose?

Pupils. (All raise their hands.)

Teacher. (The teacher experiments with this new signal as before, then says,) If, instead of this, I should give you the sound *r-o-s-e*, as a sign, I should give you the one to which not only this school, but all the people who *speak* the English language, have agreed. Or, if I should write on the blackboard thus, *rose*, these marks would be the signal to which all who can *read* the English language have agreed. These signs are called *words*; and when they apply to objects, they are *object-words*, or *names of objects*. Now, when I point to the objects in the school room, you may give me the *object-words*, or names of the objects. (The teacher points out various objects, and the pupils give their names; then reverses the exercise, he giving the name, and they pointing to the object. Finally, he gives the names of objects not present, asking the pupils to call to mind the *idea* of each, and raise their hands to show that they are thinking of it.

GENERAL REMARK ON IDEAS.—The ingenuity of the teacher will generally suggest the best methods of testing the correctness of a child's conceptions. Perhaps the best general rule is for the teacher, first of all, to imagine the object present, or himself in its presence, and bid the pupil do the same. Let it be recalled, not as a mere something known to exist, but as an object having form, proportion, color, position, and dimensions; and let all these attributes be made to correspond with the reality. Then, assuming that the pupil has done the same, proceed to question him minutely, as if the object were present. What is it? What is near to it? What is its general form? What is it like? On what does it stand or rest? Of what materials is it composed? How long, how thick, how wide is it? What is its color, weight, and bulk? Of what parts is it composed? Does the sun shine upon it? If so, on which side is its shadow? What time in the day is it, then? What surrounds it? &c.

Let the pupil answer directly from the ideas in his own mind, and his answers will usually reveal the correctness or incorrectness of these ideas. This practice of searching after the pupil's *ideas*, more than any thing else, evinces the teacher's skill and power over the mental habits of his pupils. It should now be extended to every thing. The lessons in reading, geography, arithmetic, &c., should be enlivened by it. The aim of the teacher should be to make every thing in the school room *real, earnest, practical, and lifelike*, by awakening an interest in *ideas* rather than words. The principal design in introducing *object-lessons* is to give greater life and reality to *ideas*. Let the pupil then conceive his ideas of absent objects as though there was a corresponding *reality* which he had just seen. When this can be done, lessons on objects may be dropped. When it cannot be done, the object should be referred to at any and every stage of progress.

LESSON VI.*

QUALITIES OF ACTIONS.

In Lesson II. it was seen that objects possessed certain qualities, as *smooth, rough, gentle*; it will now be seen that actions, or even qualities of objects, may themselves possess qualities, as will be shown in the following

MODEL.

Teacher. (The teacher, calling the attention of the class, says,) How many see my hand move?

Pupils. . (All raise their hands in token of assent.)

Teacher. (Moving his hand very slowly, he says,) *How* does it move?

Pupils. . Slowly.

Teacher. What slowly, *hand* or *moves*?

Pupils. . Moves.

Teacher. What then does *slowly* express a quality of?

Pupils. . The action *moves*.

Teacher. Now write upon your slates, "Qualities of Actions;" and under it write, "The hand moves slowly."

* DIRECTIONS TO THE TEACHER.—1. At first it will be well to direct the attention of the learner, as in the model, only to adverbs of *quality* or *manner*. 2. Let him then see that words added to verbs showing *when, where, why*, are also adverbs. 3. Keep up the habit of criticism. 4. Let all the previous lessons be reviewed. 5. Give frequent examples in which the parts of speech shall be mingled. 6. Let the pupils write short sentences containing adverbs, or words answering the questions, *How? When? Where? &c.* 7. Do not advance too rapidly, and be careful to secure every point as you advance. 8. It will be well to give a subject and verb, and require the class to add any thing, whether a word or a group of words, that will express *the time, place, or manner* of the act.

Pupils. . (All write.)

Teacher. (Moving his hand quickly, he says,) How does my hand move now?

Pupils. . Quickly.

Teacher. Now write on your slates, "The hand moves quickly."

Pupils. (All write.)

Teacher. Now, since *quickly* and *slowly* denote the quality of an action, and not the action itself, what shall we call them?

Pupils. . Action-quality-words.

Teacher. Right; and hence we have a new class of words, called *action-quality-words*, or *adverbs*.

EXERCISES.

I. *How can a bird fly? a horse run? a fish swim? How does the sun shine? the ship sail? the farmer labor? the carpenter build? the boy study?*

II. *Which of the following words are adverbs? which nouns? which verbs? and which adjectives?*

Nail, hammer, pleasantly, heaps, thaw, elm, grows, rapidly, renews, attractive, sweetly, fiercely, temptation, points, hopefully, otter, beaver, weasel, musingly, weaves, hopes, point, lace, diamonds, wears, nervously, meaningly.

LESSON VII.

RELATION OF OBJECTS.

When two objects are in any way connected, or when an object is connected with an attribute of another, they are *related*, or there is a *relation* between them. What these relations are will be best seen by the following lesson:—

Teacher. (The teacher takes a book and a piece of paper, and places the latter on the former.) Where is the paper?

Pupils. . On the book.

Teacher. (Placing it under the book.) Where is the paper now?

Pupils. . Under the book.

Teacher. (Placing the paper in the book.) Has the paper changed its *relation*?

Pupils. . It has; it is in the book.

Teacher. (The teacher now changes the position of the paper, so as to place it *over*, *above*, *below*, *beside*, *near*, &c., and then he moves it from the book.) What is the relation of its *motion* to the book?

Pupils. . It moves *from* the book.

Teacher. (The paper approaches the book.) What is the relation of the motion to the book?

Pupils. . It moves *towards* the book.

* Using a word while *acting out* its application is the best possible definition. Children thus learn the meaning of words even before they can speak.

Teacher. What shall we call such words as *on*, *under*, *in*, &c., since they show a *relation*?

Pupils. . Relation-words.

In this way the various relations of one object to another, or of an object to an attribute of another, may be illustrated to the eye, so as to be impressed upon the mind.

The teacher may now place two objects upon a book, a piece of *paper* and a *pen*. Now, what are *on* the book? The answer is, The *paper and the pen*. Here is a new *relation-word*, used to *combine* or *join* two objects in the same relation to the book. He places the book behind him, and takes off one of the objects, assuring them that *one* object is on the book. What can you say now is on the book? The answer is, The *paper or the pen*. The teacher asks, Which? Some one guesses the *paper*; he presents the book with the pen on it, and says, Not the *paper, but* the *pen*. *And, or, and but* are *combination-words*.

EXERCISES.

Now point out the RELATION-WORDS in the following expressions, and tell whether two objects are related, or an object and an attribute: The house on the hill; the dog in the manger; the slipper under the table; running to school; living by a river; standing beside a well; a dog and a fox running over a wall; a needle or a pin in a cushion.

LESSON VIII.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

We have seen that some words are used to name *objects*, some to denote *qualities* of objects, some the *actions* of objects, some the *qualities* of attributes, (that is, actions or qualities,) some the *relation* of objects, and some the *combination* of objects. We may now take these characteristics (see Lesson III., Exercise III., p. xviii.) as the basis for grouping these words into classes, thus:—

Words denoting objects	=	<i>object-words</i>	=	NOUNS.
Words denoting qualities of objects =	<i>quality-words</i>	=	ADJECTIVES.	
Words denoting actions of objects =	<i>action-words</i>	=	VERBS.	
Words denoting quality of attributes	{ <i>attribute-words</i> }		{ <i>quality-words</i> }	= ADVERBS.
Words denoting relation of objects =	<i>relation-words</i>	=	PREPOSITIONS.	
Words denoting combination of objects	{ <i>combination-words</i> }		{ <i>combination-words</i> }	= CONJUNCTIONS.
Words denoting emotion *	=	<i>emotion-words</i>	=	INTERJECTIONS.

* The interjection has not been illustrated like the other classes, for the obvious reason that it denotes neither an object, attribute, nor relation, but simply a sudden emotion or feeling of the speaker. Its use and characteristics can easily be illustrated in a way similar to the others. Let the teacher show what would be a natural exclamation when *joyous*, *sad*, in *pain*, or when sudden *fear* comes over us.

Let the pupil now know that words thus classified are called *parts of speech*.

EXERCISES.

I. Select the **NOUNS**, **ADJECTIVES**, and **VERBS** in the following. *The ox draws the cart. The birds sing a charming song. The fierce wind penetrates the cottage of the peasant.*

II. Select the **ADVERBS**, **PREPOSITIONS**, and **CONJUNCTIONS** in the following: *The day passed pleasantly away. The cup stood on the table. John and James have just arrived. The wind blew gently over the field. The moon and stars shine beautifully upon the lake.*

III. Select the **NOUNS**, **ADJECTIVES**, **VERBS**, **ADVERBS**, **PREPOSITIONS**, **CONJUNCTIONS**, and **INTERJECTIONS**, from paragraphs in your reading lesson.

IV. Take an object, as an apple, and illustrate, by means of it, a noun, an adjective, a verb, an adverb, and, in connection with some other object, (as a knife,) a preposition, and a conjunction.

LESSON IX.

COMBINATION OF WORDS.

An object is always intimately related to its own attributes, since the latter are always found in the former. Hence the words which represent an object and one of its attributes may be combined to show this relation, as may be seen by the following

MODEL.

Teacher. Suppose two birds, one black and the other white, were standing upon a tree, and you wish to *distinguish* one of them from the other; how could you show *which* one you mean?

Pupils. By saying, The *black* bird, or *white* bird.

Teacher. Right; and you would place the object, *bird*, and its own quality *black* or *white*, in relation to each other by combining the words which represent each. Is there any word to show their relation?

Pupils. There is none.

Teacher. Now, suppose I do not know the color of the bird, and you wish to *tell* me its color. What would you say?

Pupils. We should say, The bird is *black*; or, The bird is *white*.

Teacher. Right; and you would, again, place the object, *bird*, and its own quality, *black* or *white*, in relation to each other. Would they be in the same order as before?

Pupils. They would not. Then, the quality-word was placed *before* the object-word; now, it is placed *after* it.

Teacher. Does any thing show the relation between them?

Pupils. It *shows* or *tells* that the quality *black* belongs to the bird.

Teacher. Now, suppose two birds are alike, but one is standing upon a tree, and the other flying around it. How could you *distinguish* the latter?

Pupils. . We would say, The *flying* bird.

Teacher. You would place the object, *bird*, and its own action, *flying*, in relation to each other. Is there any word to show their relation?

Pupils. . There is none.

Teacher. But suppose I did not know what the bird was doing; how would you *tell* me?

Pupils. . We should say, The bird is *flying*.

Teacher. So you would, again, place the object, *bird*, and its action, *flying*, in relation to each other. Would they be in the same order as before?

Pupils. . They would not. The action is now mentioned after the object. Then, it was mentioned before it.

Teacher. Is there any word to show the relation between them?

Pupils. . The same word is *says* that the action was performed by the bird.

Teacher. Suppose, again, that there were two persons having the same name *George*, the one a carpenter, and the other a farmer. How could we *distinguish* the one from the other.

Pupils. . We could say, George the *carpenter*.

Teacher. You would place the name *George* and the name indicating his occupation in relation to each other. Is there any word to show the relation?

Pupils. . There is none.

Teacher. Now, suppose I did not know his occupation, and you were to *tell* me. How would you do it?

Pupils. . We should say, George is a *carpenter*.

Teacher. You would, again, place the two names in relation to each other, and, as before, you would place *is* between them to *show* or *tell* the occupation. When we wish to connect an object with one of its own attributes, what two different states of mind may we represent?

Pupils. . We may *distinguish* one object from another, or we may *say* something of an object.

Teacher. Right. now review Lesson III., and then perform the following examples:—

EXERCISES.

I. Give the *qualities* of *sealing wax*, an *apple*, *salt*, *whalebone*, *ivory*, *gold*, the *dew*, a *brook*, a *tree*.

II. Give the *actions* of a *bee*, a *serpent*, a *scholar*, a *robin*, a *toad*, a *sparrow*, a *goat*.

III. Give *some word* to express the *occupation*, *character*, or *office* of *Washington*, *Webster*, *Columbus*, *Arnold*.

IV. DISTINGUISH any of the objects in (I.) by some quality; in (II.) by some action; in (III.) by some office, occupation, or character.

V. TELL OR DECLARE the *qualities* * of the objects in (I.), the *action* in (II.), the *office*, &c., in (III.)

* DIRECTIONS TO THE TEACHER.—I. It may now be said to the learner, that when we *distinguish* the object by its quality, action, or office, it is supposed that all know that by which we thus distinguish it; the *quality*, or *action*, &c., is then assumed to belong to the object; but when we *say* or *tell* what belongs to the object, we then *affirm*, *declare*, or *predicate* what before was assumed. Thus, in the expression "White snow," *white* is assumed; but in the expression "The snow is *white*," the same quality

VI. *As the teacher exhibits the qualities of glass, first assume, and then predicate them singly.*

VII. *Take any two qualities; assume one, and predicate the other. Then reverse the order, assuming the predicated, and predicating the assumed quality.*

VIII. *Assume any two, and predicate any two; as, The smooth, thin glass is brittle and transparent. Reverse the order; assume one, and predicate the rest. Predicate one, and assume the others. Assume all; predicate all.*

LESSON X.

THE PROPOSITION.

When an attribute is predicated of an object to which it belongs, — as, “Gold is yellow,” — the group of words is called a *proposition*; but when the attribute is assumed, as, “Yellow gold,” the group is not a proposition. The object is then said to be *restricted, limited, or distinguished*.

EXERCISES.

I. *Take some attribute of the following objects, and form propositions.* Grass, cherries, lilies, vapor, horses, rabbits, butterflies, ice, Solomon, Abraham.

II. *Tell which of the following expressions are propositions, and which are not:* The sun is shining. The winds are blowing. Growing tree. The water flows. Peter the Hermit. David was king. Isaiah prophesied. An heroic general.

III. *Add to or change the following words between the periods so as to form propositions:* Weather cold. Grass grow. Hen cackle. Solon wise man. He live. Nut fall. Ice melt. River flow. Bridges breaks. Boy drown. He cry. Helen poor. Report heard. Apples decays. Melon grow.

IV. *Change or vary the proposition, “The bird flies,” so as to show that more than one bird performed the act — that the act was performed yesterday — that the act is to take place to-morrow — tell which words you have changed.*

is predicated. 2. Let the teacher take, in the presence of the class, some object, as a piece of sponge, glass, or paper, and develop, as in Lesson III., its qualities, and let the pupils assume and then predicate each quality; thus, “Soft sponge. The sponge is soft.” 3. Multiply examples, if necessary, till the distinction between predicating and assuming shall be understood.

LESSON XI.

THE PROPOSITION ENLARGED.

In Lesson X. the proposition contains but two parts — that which contains the attribute, called the *subject*, and the attribute itself, which is affirmed of the subject, and hence called the *predicate*. When the subject is not an individual name, or when the predicate does not represent some particular act, it is necessary to add words to each, for the purpose of *explaining* or *individualizing* them.

MODEL.

- (1.) "King died."
- (2.) "*The* king died."
- (3.) "The *good* king died."
- (4.) "The good king *Edward VI.* died."
- (5.) "The good king Edward VI., *the son of Henry VIII.*, died."
- (6.) "The good king Edward VI., son of Henry VIII., died *in the sixteenth year of his age.*"
- (7.) "The good king Edward VI., the son of Henry VIII., died *in the sixteenth year of his age, and the seventh year of his reign.*"

The effect of individualizing an *object* may be seen from the following

MODEL.

Teacher. If each object in the universe had a distinct and separate name, how many names should we have?

Pupils. We could not count them; there would be as many names as objects.

Teacher. If you could not count them, could you ever commit them to memory?

Pupils. Never; for there would be as many different names as there are different *trees, quadrupeds, birds, fishes, &c.* We could not count all the individual fishes in a lifetime.

Teacher. If every individual object had an individual name, how could we distinguish one object from another?

Pupils. Simply by giving its name.

Teacher. True; not only each man would have a name, but each tree, dog, horse, fish, &c., &c.; and the mention of that name would draw the attention to one object, and exclude all others. But since we cannot give *individual* names to all objects, what shall we do?

Pupils. (Probably none will answer.)

Teacher. Here is an object which we call a *pen*, and here is another object like it: what shall we call this?

Pupils. . We call that a *pen*, too.

Teacher. Very well; now, if I say *pen*, can you tell which one I mean?

Pupils. . We cannot; for we think of one as well as the other.

Teacher. Now, suppose one is a *metallic* pen, and the other is a *quill* pen; how could you point me to the individual pen which you mean?

Pupils. . By saying, *metallic* pen.

Teacher. Right; and *metallic pen* would be just as good as an individual name; in other words, *metallic* would help you to individualize the pen by excluding the other. But suppose I should present you another object like these two; what would you call that?

Pupils. . We should call that a *pen*.

Teacher. Now, suppose this new one to be a metallic pen; how could you individualize it?

Pupils. . We would say *metallic* pen.

Teacher. Yes; but you have two metallic pens, (the teacher holding them up.) Which one do you mean?

Pupils. . The *small* pen.

Teacher. Yes; but the quill pen is a small one, as you see, (the teacher holding it up.)

Pupils. . We mean "the *small metallic* pen."

Teacher. Very good; and *small metallic pen* is just as good as an individual name. It distinguishes the pen you mean from the other two. But suppose all the pens in the world were to be presented to you, one at a time, what would you call each?

Pupils. . A pen.

Teacher. Then suppose there were many millions of them; would they each have a name?

Pupils. . They would.

Teacher. Would they each have an individual name?

Pupils. . They would not.

Teacher. Would they each have a different name?

Pupils. . They would not; each would have the same name.

Teacher. They would have *one* name in common; hence called a *common* name to distinguish it from an *individual* or *proper* name. But do no objects have individual names? Can you mention one?

Pupils. . (One speaks.) Is not *George* an individual name?

Teacher. Why do you think so?

Pupil. . I notice when you say "boy," all the boys in school look up as though you called them all; but when you say "George," we all know what one you mean.

Teacher. Right; *George* is a proper name; so, you see, he has two names — a proper name, *George*, and a common name, *boy*. If I use the common name, how can I show whom I mean?

Pupils. . By *individualizing* him.

Teacher. Right; so I might say, "That small black-eyed *boy*, who sits in the corner of the room, near the door;" or I might say *George*. Which would you prefer?

Pupils. . We should prefer *George*.

Teacher. But most objects have only common names; how can we point out individuals among such objects?

Pupils. . Only by *individualizing* them.

Teacher. Now, all words, and groups of words, whether they denote quality or not, when used to individualize an object, (not an attribute,) are called *adjective*. Hence "that" "small," "black-eyed," "who sits in the corner, near the door," are all adjective expressions.

EXERCISES.

I. Tell what individual name is the same as the following general names individualized: The MAN who crossed the Atlantic, and discovered the new world. The MAN who commanded the American army, defeated the British forces, and was styled the father of his country.

II. Use a general name, and so individualize it, that it may designate LAFAYETTE, FRANKLIN, or PETER THE GREAT.

III. Many common names, as tree, cloud, house, insect, fish, have no corresponding individual name. Take any ten of these, and so limit them that each will denote an individual.

The effect of individualizing or limiting an action may be seen from the following

MODEL.

Teacher. In the expression, "The bird *moves through the air*," what one word can be substituted for those in *Italics*?

Pupils. . Flies.

Teacher. Then *flies* = *moves through the air*. Will you add something to limit the action in the following example, "The horse ran"? Show *how* he ran.

Pupils. . The horse ran *slowly*.

Teacher. Now, add something to show *when* the horse ran.

Pupils. . The horse ran *in the morning*.

Teacher. What does the expression "*in the morning*" exclude?

Pupils. . It excludes any running which took place at night, at noon, or any other time than morning.

Teacher. Will you add something to show *where* the horse ran?

Pupils. . The horse ran *in the street*.

Teacher. Will you add something to limit the verb in the example, "The boy *opened*"? Show what he opened.

Pupils. (*Individually.*) 1st. The boy opened *his knife*. 2d. The boy opened *his eyes*. 3d. The boy opened *the door*. 4th. The boy opened *a book*.

Teacher. Add something to show why he opened it.

Pupils. The boy opened the book *to read*.

Teacher. Now, how many different kinds of questions have you answered by adding these words? See if you can recall them.

Pupils. (*Separately.*) 1st. We answered the question *how*? 2d. We answered the question *when*? 3d. We answered the question *where*? 4th. We answered the question *what*? 5th. We answered the question *why*?

EXERCISES.

I. *Put the following words into propositions; then enlarge them by limiting their subjects:—*

Trees beautiful. Cloud disappear. Vapor rise. Dog bark. Wind piercing. Water flow. Flowers bloom. Ice melt. King reign. Ape climb. Vulture tear. Boy boisterous. Child gentle. Serpent crawl. Frog hop. Bee buzz.

II. *Make propositions of the following, and enlarge them by completing the meaning of the verb:—*

Boy buy, (what.) Bee eat. Storm have broken. Dogs have devour. Insect destroy. Eagle see. Lady find. Ink stain. Man see. Washington defeat. Arnold betray. Hawk catch. Mouse destroy.

Thus, The boy bought a pencil.

III. *Tell WHEN the following events happened:—*

Columbus discovered America, (when.) The Pilgrims reached New England. Charlestown was burned. The people walked. The sun rises.* The moon sets.* The dew disappears. Twilight commences. The storm abated.

IV. *Tell WHERE the following happened:—*

The British were defeated, (where.) Moses was concealed. Jesus was crucified. Congress was assembled. Webster died. Washington was buried. The stranger stopped. The army encamped. The Pilgrims landed. The old worn-out soldier slept.

V. *Tell HOW the following happened:—*

The dog was killed, (how.) The fire was kindled. The pupil wrote his copy. The cars move. Harriet plays. The horses ran. The water falls.

VI. *Tell WHY the following happened:—*

My father has kindled a fire, (why.) Children go to school. The merchant buys goods. The mother sings to her child. The messenger came. The wall is made around the garden.

VII. *Limit the subjects and predicates of the following, in any of the above ways:—*

Winter has come. The ducks were swimming. The tree fell. The mice gnawed. The weeds were removed. The fountain failed. The street was crowded. The lecture was delivered. The coachman drove.

VIII. *Point out the subjects, predicates, and limiting parts in the last exercise.*

IX. *Tell all the nouns, adjectives, or adjective expressions, adverbs, or adverbial expressions, prepositions, and conjunctions in the last exercise.*

X. *Make propositions of your own, and limit them as above, telling what part of speech each word is.*

* Let the pupils ascertain the time of rising and setting for the day when the lesson is given out.

LESSON XII.

IMPLIED RELATIONS.

We have seen how one object may be related to another object, or to the attributes of another object; also, how an object may be related to its own attributes. We are now to show how an object and an attribute — that is, how a proposition — is related to him who *speaks* it or *writes* it. There must be three parties. 1st. Some one must speak. 2d. Some one must be spoken to. 3d. Some person, or some thing, must be spoken of.

MODEL.

Teacher. When Joseph said to his brethren, "Does my father yet live?" who was the first party?

Pupils. . Joseph.

Teacher. And who was the second?

Pupils. . His brethren.

Teacher. Right; who was the third?

Pupils. . His father.

Teacher. Very well; and when he said, "I am Joseph," who was the speaker or first party?

Pupils. . Joseph.

Teacher. Right; and who the hearers, or second party?

Pupils. . His brethren.

Teacher. And who the third, or person spoken of?

Pupils. . (All hesitate — one says,) He spoke of himself.

Teacher. Very good. Then the parties stand, 1st, Joseph; 2d, his brethren; 3d, Joseph. How many of the parties does Joseph represent?

Pupils. . Two; the 1st and 3d.

Teacher. When Joseph said, "Ye shall not see my face except your brother be with you," who was the speaker?

Pupils. . Joseph.

Teacher. Who were the hearers?

Pupils. . His brethren.

Teacher. Now, if Joseph, stranger as he was to his brethren, had said, "This do and live, for Joseph fears God," instead of saying, "I fear God," would they have understood that he was speaking of himself?

Pupils. . They would not.

Teacher. If a person by the name of Frank should say, (meaning himself,) "Frank wrote a letter," would the hearer know that he meant *himself*?

Pupils. . He would not.

Teacher. Then, when a speaker is at the same time the actor, i. e., represents two parties, he cannot be understood to be the speaker when he uses the *name* of the actor. Thus, if we had the words, "Alexander conquered," no one would suppose that Alexander said that. Now, how can we show both that Alexander conquered, and that Alexander said it?

Pupils. . If he should say, "I conquered," I would show that he both *did* it and *said* it.

Teacher. That is right; *I* is used instead of Alexander, to show that the actor and the speaker are both one. Sometimes the hearer and the actor are both one. What shall we do then?

Pupil (No one answers.)

Teacher. When a teacher speaks to George, and says, "You write well," the teacher is the speaker; but who is the actor, and who the hearer?

Pupils. . George is both actor and hearer.

Teacher. But, suppose the teacher should say, "George writes well," who would be the actor, and who the hearer?

Pupils. . George would be the actor, and those present the hearers.

Teacher. Then, in order to put George at the same time in the relation of hearer and actor, we must say, "You write well."* Shall we drop the name when we speak of George simply as the actor?

Pupils. . We need not.

Teacher. But, suppose I were to say, "George wrote a letter, and George carried the letter to George's teacher, and George's teacher commended George for George's neat letter." Would the expression be agreeable?

Pupils. . It would not, because *George* is repeated so often.

Teacher. How could you avoid the repetition?

Pupils. . By using *he*, *his*, and *him*.

Teacher. But suppose the same thing had been said of Elizabeth; would you use *he*, *his*, and *him*?

Pupils. . By no means; but *she* and *her*.

Teacher. Suppose I should say of my hat, "My hat was made in New York, and my hat was brought to Boston, where I bought my hat;" what would you do?

Pupils. . We would use *it*, instead of *hat*.

Teacher. Very good. Now, these three parties are called *persons*; the speaker is called the *first* person; the hearer the *second*; and the actor, or one *spoken of*, (whether a person or thing,) the *third*. When the speaker wishes to represent himself, he cannot use his name, but must use some other word, as, *I*; when he wishes to represent the hearer, he must use *thou* or *you*; when he wishes to represent the person or thing spoken of, he may use the name, but to avoid repetition he uses *he*, *she*, *it*, &c. Now, these words, *I*, *thou*, or *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, and others, are employed instead of *nouns* to represent these several relations. They therefore are called *Pronouns*, (instead of nouns.) What new part of speech or class of words have we?

* Here let the teacher show that we sometimes introduce the name of the hearer, as the person addressed — "George, you write well." Let both forms be adopted in the exercises, requiring the insertion of a comma after the name.

Pupils. Pronouns.*

Teacher. Now, give all the classes of words, or parts of speech.

EXERCISES.

I. *Make the subjects in the following sentences represent both the actors and the speakers :—*

Jacob loved Joseph. Cain slew Abel. Columbus was aided by the Queen of Spain. William the Conqueror defeated Harold. Thus, I loved Joseph.

II. *Make the same represent the hearers ; thus, You loved Joseph.*

III. *Make the OBJECTS in the above examples denote the speakers—the hearer ; thus, Jacob loved ME.*

IV. *Put the following words into propositions, and (1.) make the event appear to take place at the time the words are spoken, (present ;) (2.) before they are spoken, (past ;) (3.) after they are spoken, (future :)—*

Wind blow. Corn grow. Hail rattle. Thunder roar. Fire burn. Ox graze. Snow melt. Vapor climb. Dog worry cat. Mouse catch trap. Play child barn in. Squirrel tree up run. Thus, The corn grows. The corn grew. The corn will grow.

V. *Put the same into propositions, so as to show that the event ACTUALLY takes place ; then, so as to show, not that it takes place, but that it MAY, CAN, or MUST take place ; thus, The corn grows. The corn may grow, (but does not grow.)*

VI. *Alter the nouns so as to make them mean more than one, and see what change takes place in the verb or predicate.*

GRAMMAR.

We have been studying *things*, and what belong to things *ideas*, and the way to *express* ideas ; *words*, and the way to *form*, *alter*, and *classify* them ; *propositions* or *sentences*

* DIRECTIONS TO THE TEACHER. — The relation of persons gives rise to the personal pronoun. The pronoun is not needed, like the noun, to represent an idea, but to represent the relation of the parties necessarily implied in social intercourse. These pronouns should be fully illustrated to the children. They all show a relation to the *speaker*. The relation affects both the subject and predicate. Let its effect be illustrated thus : Suppose I say, "James reads ;" what change would take place if *James himself* should express the same thought ? He would say, "I read." Let the pupils explain the changes in both words. Now, if I should express the same thought to James, I should say, "You read." What changes take place ?

The relation of person is here introduced particularly in order to develop the pronoun. Besides this, there are necessarily two other relations to the speaker. When the speaker states an event, he assumes the moment of speaking as the *point* from which to reckon time, and places the event at that time, or throws it into the past or future, as the fact may require. But this relation requires no new part of speech. It affects only the *predicate* ; as, "James is writing, *was* writing, or *will be* writing."

Again : the speaker looks upon an event which he is about to record as something *real*, as when a house is *actually* burned, or as something *imaginary*, as when we think, — "What if the house *should be* burned ! " It is not actually burned. Now, this distinction requires a different *mode* of speaking. The teacher should illustrate these points, as well as the relation of number, before entering upon the body of this book.

and the way to form them, and the parts which compose them. Now, all this prepares the way to study grammar. Much of it is grammar — all, indeed, that has taught us to speak and write correctly. But grammar, arranged systematically, considers whatever pertains to simple *sounds*, and the *letters* which represent them; whatever pertains to *words*, the changes they undergo, and the classes to which they belong; whatever pertains to *sentences*, the parts which compose them, the relation, agreement, dependence, and government of these parts; whatever pertains to the formation of *verse*, or the arrangement of language so as to produce the agreeable effect of measure. All these are embraced in grammar; it teaches us the principles which should guide in using language correctly.

SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER. — It will be seen, throughout this *introductory course*, that the aim has been to *state* nothing dogmatically, but to draw from the stores which the pupil already possesses, those facts, which, being placed in new relations, may evolve the principle aimed at. In the full course which follows excepting the Oral Exercises, the opposite method is pursued. The principle is first stated, and then the illustrations are given; yet the *teacher*, throughout the entire course, should adopt the inductive method, whenever a difficult lesson is to be presented for the *first time*. The inductive method is invaluable in helping a feeble or undisciplined mind to comprehend elementary principles, and to group them into more general rules. When principles are fully understood, the comprehensive rule or definition should be *committed to memory*. The teacher cannot be too careful to insist upon this. Every general rule or definition should be thoroughly learned and used. Let the learner now enter upon the main course; let every point be understood as he advances, and his progress will be satisfactory both to himself and his teacher.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

English Grammar treats of the principles and usages of the English language; it teaches us to speak and write it correctly.

REM. — Grammar is not a code of laws made *for* the language, but rather derived *from* the language in its present state. It is the province of the grammarian to interpret and classify the analogies and usages of the language so as to present them in a condensed and systematic view. Over the laws of language he has no control, or rather he has the same kind of control that the naturalist has over the laws of the physical world, and no other. He does not *make* the rules of grammar; he only *exhibits* what already exists. That the “verb agrees with its nominative in number and person,” is not an authoritative edict from the grammarian. It existed as a law of language long before he discovered and published it. It was none the less imperative *before* he uttered it, and becomes no more so *because* he has uttered it. True, the fact that it is drawn out, and distinctly stated, makes it better known — more widely understood — and, it may be, more generally obeyed. And herein consists the advantage of the study of grammar: he who knows the laws of language has before him a standard by which he may *test* his own expressions, while he who yields only an unconscious obedience to usage is never sure when or why he is right, nor when or why he is wrong. Entering upon the study of grammar with these views, the learner, aided by his teacher, comes in contact with the *language* itself; he himself becomes a *discoverer* of analogies and principles, it may be, not even noted by the grammarian; and even if they are, he receives his greatest pleasure from the impression, that he is *confirming*, rather than blindly *obeying*, the statement of another.

It teaches how to combine letters into syllables, syllables into words, and words into sentences, either in prose or verse.

Grammar is divided into four parts — *Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*.

Orthography treats of elementary sounds, the letters which represent them, and the combination of letters into syllables and words.

Etymology treats of the classification, derivation, and various modifications of words.

Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.

Prosody treats of the laws of versification.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Orthography treats of elementary sounds, the letters which represent them, and the combination of letters into syllables and words.

ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

ORAL EXERCISE.

The teacher, calling the attention of the class, says, Listen! Then giving the sound of *a* in name, How many heard my *voice*? Giving again the sound of *s* as in *s-in*, (not the name *ess*, but the hissing sound alone,) he says, Did you then hear my *voice*, or only a *whispering sound*? *Ans.* Only a whispering sound. Listen again! giving, in the same manner, the sound of *f*, he says, Did you hear a *voice-sound*, or a *breath-sound*? *Ans.* A *breath-sound*. With the same position of the organs, he adds a slight vocality, producing the sound of *v*. Do you hear any voice now? He tries the same with *p*, and passes from *p* to *b*; then from *t* to *d*, from *k* to *g*, from *s* to *z*, from *ch* to *j*, from *sh* to *zh*, and thus shows the difference between a *breath-sound*, and a *breath-sound* mingled with a slight *voice-sound*. Then, again, recalling their attention to such sounds as *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, by examples from his own voice, always to be repeated by the class, he causes them to observe and note the distinctions. They are now prepared for the following definitions:—

An *elementary* sound is the simplest sound of the language; as, *a*, *e*; *b*, *k*.

The English language contains about forty elementary sounds.

CLASSES OF ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

These sounds are divided into three classes — *vocals*, *subvocals*, and *aspirates*.

The *vocals* consist of pure tone only; as, *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*.

The *subvocals* consist of tone united with breath; as, *b*, *d*, *m*, *n*, *r*.

The *aspirates* consist of pure breath only; as, *p*, *t*, *k*, *f*.

Vocals are subdivided into *long* and *short*.

The *long* sound is one that can be protracted at pleasure; as, *may* ——— *ay*, *bee* ——— *ee*.

The *short* sound is one formed by the same position of the organs, but uttered with an explosive effort — *pin*, *pen*, *hat*, *sit*

REM. 1. — The *a* in *hat* is properly the short sound of *a* in *fare*, not *e* in *hate*. The short sound of *a* in *mate* is *e* in *met*, as any one may see by

placing the organs in a position to give *ā* and explode the sound. The *e* in *pin* is the short sound of *ee* in *seen*; sometimes represented by *ee* as in *been*, (*bin*.) The *o* in *not* is the short sound of *o* in *nor*, not *o* in *note*. The *u* in *put* is the short sound of *oo* in *book*. The *u* in *but* is the short sound of *u* in *fur*, not *u* in *mute*.

REM. 2. — Some of the subvocals, like vocals, may be prolonged; as, *l, m, n, r, th, v, w, y, z, zh*. Others are incapable of prolongation; as, *b, d, g, j, x*. The latter class are sometimes, though not properly, called *mutes*.

TABLE OF ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

Vocals.	Subvocals.	Aspirates.	Correlatives.
1. a-l-e*	1. b-a-t	1. f-ai-th	1. b-o-w = p-o-l-e
2. f-a-r	2. d-o-g	2. h-o-m-e	2. d-o-g = t-o-n
3. b-a-ll	3. g-o	3. a-r-k	3. g-e-t = k-i-n-d
4. h-a-t	4. j-o-y	4. p-i-n-e	4. th-i-s = th-u-m-b
5. m-e	5. l-o-t	5. s-u-n	5. j-o-b = ch-i-n
6. m-e-t	6. m-a-n	6. t-a-k-e	6. v-a-n = f-a-n
7. f-i-n-e	7. n-o	7. th-i-n-k	7. v-i-n-e = s-o-n
8. p-i-n	8. s-o-n-g	8. sh-o-n-e	8. a-z-u-r-e = sh-u-t
9. g-o-l-d	9. b-a-r	9. ch-u-r-l	
10. m-o-v-e	10. th-i-s	10. wh-e-n	
11. n-o-t	11. v-a-t		
12. m-u-t-e	12. w-i-s-e		
13. p-u-ll	13. s-o-n-e		
14. c-u-p	14. a-z-u-r-e		
15. f-o-u-n-d	15. y-e-s		

The following subvocals, *l, m, n, r, s, v*, are sometimes called *semivocals*; the first four are called *liquids*.

NOTE. — By what rule such sounds as *f, s, or c* soft, which have no vocalism whatever, can be called *semivocals*, it is impossible to see.

The aspirates and subvocals are sometimes divided according to the organs of speech chiefly employed in forming them. Thus, *labials, p, b, f, v*; *dentals, t, d, s, z*; *palatals, g* soft and *j*; *gutturals, k, q, c, and g* hard; *nasals, m* and *n*; and *linguals, l* and *r*.

EXERCISE.

The following words contain the different elementary sounds in the language. Utter first the word, and then the element printed in *Italics*.

VOCALS. N-a-me, f-a-r, b-a-ll, a-t; m-e, m-e-t; f-i-ne, p-i-n; s-o-ld, m-o-ve, n-o-t; m-u-te, p-u-ll, c-u-p; f-o-u-nd.

* SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER. — The learner should be taught here to give attention to the *sounds* only, not the *characters* employed to represent them. The teacher's voice must be his guide. The character is often deceptive. The pupil should be made to appreciate the above classification, by actually producing the sounds and noting the difference. In teaching these sounds, a whole word should be given at first, and then one element after another may be dropped, till the proposed one is left alone. Thus, *fate*, — *fā*, — *ā*; *ball*, — *bā*, — *ā*; *men*, — *mē*, — *m*; *date*, — *dā*, — *d*.

In exercises on the correlatives, the teacher will do well to give them in pairs thus: *b — p, d — t, g — k, th — th*, &c. After having secured a distinct utterance of them in pairs, he will find it easy to show the learner that the subvocal *b*, for instance is the same as the aspirate *p*, combined with a slight vocalism. The aspirate being given, as *f*, the corresponding subvocal, that is, its *correlative*, *v*, will be found by adding a slight vocalism, while the organs preserve the same position.

SUBVOCALS. *B-at, d-og, g-o, f-oy, l-ife, m-an, n-o, so-ng, ba-r, th-ose, v-oice, w-ise, y-es, z-one, a-z-ure.*

ASPIRATES. *F-aith, h-at, ar-k, p-ine, s-um, t-ake, th-ink, sh-one, ch-urch, wh-en.*

Tell by the sound which letters in the following promiscuous examples are VOCALS, which are SUBVOCALS, and which are ASPIRATES:—

And, great, made, fame, sad, mete, gave, life, voice, six, zebra, full, sup, dine, bid, bag, kite, pare, when, this, shall, ocean, king, feel, drive, make, link

Tell, in the last examples, which vowels are long, and which are short.

LETTERS.

ORAL EXERCISE.

Having drilled the class sufficiently on all the elementary sounds, the teacher, standing at the blackboard, utters an elementary sound, as *s*, and says, Now, suppose I make this mark + on the board; will you all give me the sound when I point to the mark? Then, giving another sound, as *a*, he makes another *different* mark on the board, calling upon the class to give the sound, when he points to the mark, thus showing that these sounds may be associated with any visible *marks* or *characters*. He continues to invent new marks, always, as he advances, recurring to the previous ones, that they may not be forgotten, till some five or six have been given. Having thus shown the *application* and *use* of a letter, as an arbitrary invention to represent a sound, he can easily exhibit to the class the nature and use of an alphabet, the difference between a *letter* or a mere mark and its *power*. And when the letter is called *ess*, he can easily show the difference between the *name ess*, the *letter* or *mark e*, and the *power* of *e*, which must be given by the voice.

A letter is a *character* used to represent an elementary sound.

The English alphabet contains twenty-six letters: A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

The letters of the alphabet are of two kinds — *capitals* and *small letters*.

The various *styles* of letters are the Roman, the *Italic*, *Old English*, and *Script*.

REM. — Letters of the same style differ in *size*, giving rise to the following distinctions:—

Great Primer,
English,
Pica,
Small Pica,

Long Primer,
Bourgeois,
Brevier,
Minion,
Nonpareil
Pearl

When several letters, or combinations of letters, represent the same sound, they are called *equivalents*; as, name, *g-ay*, *th-ey*. Thus *ā* may be equivalent to *ai*, *ay*, *ei*, *ey*, *ao*, *ua*, as in *vain*, *pay*, *rein*, *prey*, *gaol*, *guage*.

When a letter represents several different sounds, it is said to be *variable*; as, *a* in *name*, *far*, *fat*, *hall*, *care*, *what*, *liar*.

When a letter has no sound, it is said to be *silent*.

REM. — It will be seen that there are more elementary sounds than letters. Hence some letters must represent more than one sound each.

CLASSES OF LETTERS.

Letters are divided into two classes — *vowels* and *consonants*.

Those letters which represent vocals are called *vowels*. They are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

REM. — *W* and *Y* are consonants when they precede a vowel in the same syllable; as, *wine*, *twine*, *yes*, *yet*. In all other situations they are vowels.

Those letters which represent subvocals and aspirates are called *consonants*.

The consonants are *b*, *d*, *g*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *v*, *z* (subvocal,) and *f*, *h*, *k*, *c*, *q*, *p*, *t*, *s*, (aspirates;) *x* is a subvocal when it is equivalent to *gs*, an aspirate when it is equivalent to *ks*.

EXERCISE.

Tell which letters are vowels, and which are consonants, in the following words: —

Name, war, come, peace, tree, fish, good, live, old, sad, young, wine, said, yet, win, new, gay, day.

Tell which of the following letters represent vocals, which subvocals, and which aspirates: —

a, *f*, *g*, *m*, *c*, *k*, *d*, *p*, *o*, *w*, *s*, *h*, *y*, *t*, *r*, *v*, *x*, *l*, *e*, *j*.

Analyze the following words by giving, in order, the elementary sounds, (not the names of the letters;) tell how many sounds and how many letters each has; also what letters are silent: —

Mete, laugh, bought, fought, believe, phthisic, balm, rough, piece, beauty, thought, blight.

MODEL. M — ē — t = mete: — three sounds and four letters. The final *e* is silent.

Give the equivalent vocals in the following words, tell what letters represent them, and write them on your slates, thus: ā = ai, ei, ey, ay, ao, ua, ue.

The equivalent of a in pale, sail, veil, say, gaol, gauge, boquet; of a in ask, laugh, aunt, there, prayer, heir; of a in hall, law, broad, fr. ap-

plaud, bought, awe; of *p* in be, tree, key, flea, brief, conceive, fatigue; of *e* in end, says, heifer, many, busy, head, feoff, again; of *i* in iron, eye, die, by, buy, aisle, height, guide; of *i* in ink, sieve, hymn, been, guilt, busy, women; of *o* in go, door, owe, goat, rose, flow, dough, sew, beau; of *o* in dot, what, not, yacht; of *u* in music, flew, hue, view, adieu, beauty, deuce, sluice, you, through; of *u* in pull, wool, wolf, would; of *u* in gun, ton, touch, her, sir, myrrh, does; of *ou* in plough, now; of *oi* in toil, joy.

Give the equivalent consonant sounds of the following words, in the same manner:—

The equivalents of *s* in sure, shall, chaise, ocean, nuptial, session, partial, gracious; of *z* in zone, was, Xerxes, suffice; of *s* in seat, cent; of *j* in joy, gem, soldier; of *v* in vote, of, cipher; of *z* in azure, measure, rouge; of *w* in wet, one, quilt; of *y* in young, minion.

Point out the subvocals in the following words, and give the correlatives of such as have them, thus: b——p; n; d——t:—

Bat, bind, rub, tube, dog, bad, soda, day, gone, game, joy, just, gill, George, vane, vine, then, those, long, let, fall, man, can, mend, mist, sing, ring, cling, doing, run, river, star, wave, wine, wept, one, once, zone, zebra, has, his, sacrifice, azure, leisure, rogue, yes, you, filial.

Point out the aspirates in the following, and give the corresponding subvocals to such as have them:—

Fame, far, if, staff, laugh, tough, phrase, kind, hid, quay, lock, hand, hide, hill, heart, put, pink, lip, sin, same, sun, city, mice, tell, tune, tone, net, pit, faced, forced, thief, thought, through, short, shave, shell, shun, sure, ocean, official, church, chin, chest, such, what, when, why, where.

Give the various sounds of the several vowels in the following words:—

Hate, pate, ball, call, care, fare, hat, mat, far, mar, jar, liar, rival, mete, replete, men, pen, hen, there, where, her, herd, crier, fuel, pine, mine, vine, twine, pin, sin, din, tin, machine, marine, fir, virtue, bird, note, vote, tore, lore, cot, odd, sod, sorrow, more, prove, for, sort, nor, son, done, because, honey, tune, cure, tub, but, hut, pull, bush, push, fur, burr, sulphur, rule, busy, siren, type, style, crystal, physis, myrrh, myrtle, lately, crazy, martyr. Thus, hate—*ā*, pate—*ā*, ball—*ā*.

Give the various sounds of the following consonants in Italics:—

Face, pace, cap, cup, suffice, gill, go, rouge, was, sister, says, measure, war, exist.

COMBINATION OF LETTERS.

When two or more letters unite, to represent a union of elementary sounds, they form a *combination* of letters; as *ou*, *oi*, *bl*, *on*, *no*, *not*, *breath*, *breadth*, *thrusts*.

NOTE 1.—Sometimes a combination of elementary sounds is represented by a single letter; as, *i* = *ā ē*, (*a* in *far*, and *e* in *me*); *u* in *union* = *yū*; *e* in *one* = *wh*.

NOTE 2.—Sometimes a combination of letters represents a single elementary sound; as, *th* in *this*; *ti*, *ci*, *si*, *ce*, in *martial*, *mission*, *official*.

* Let this be done by actually giving the sound, not by looking at the list of correlatives.

ocean, oo, ee, aa, gg, ss, bb, ff, ll, tt, in *door, feet, Isaac, egg, buzz, ebb, off, call, butt*.

I. Two or more vowels may unite ; as, *ou* in *sound*, *uo* in *buoy*.

A *diphthong* is the union of two vowels in one syllable as, *ou* in *sound*, *oi* in *voice*.

A *proper* diphthong is one in which both vowels are sounded ; as, *ou* in *thou*.

An *improper* diphthong is one in which one of the vowels is silent ; as, the *a* in *heat*.

A *triphthong* is the union of three vowels in one syllable as, *eau* in *beauty*.

A *proper* triphthong is one in which the three vowels are sounded ; as, *uo* in *buoy*.

An *improper* triphthong is one in which one or two of the vowels are silent ; as, *ea* in *beauty*, *ie* in *adieu*.

II. Two or more consonants may unite ; as, *bl-e-nd*, *thr-ee*.

RULE 1. Two similar consonant sounds, that is, two aspirates or two subvocals, may unite ; as, *apt*, *adze*, *hats*.

RULE 2. When a subvocal is followed by an aspirate, the latter usually takes the sound of its correlative ; as, *bag*, *bags*,* *pad*, *pads*,* = *bagz*, *padz*.

RULE 3. When an aspirate is followed by a subvocal the latter usually takes the sound of its correlative ; as *placed* = *plac'd †* = *plact*, *scraped* = *scrap'd †* = *scrapt*.

NOTE. — To this rule there are exceptions ; as, *fierce*, *first*, *sent*, *no fierce*, *first*, *send*.

RULE 4. While two similar sounds may unite, two identical sounds cannot, even though letters to represent them may be employed ; thus : *egg*, *butt*, *ebb*, *whiff* = *eg*, *but*, *eb*, *whif*, *not eg-g*, *but-t*, &c.

* By analyzing the plurals of *bag* and *pad*, it will be seen that, though we add the letter *s*, which should represent an aspirate, we do not add an aspirate sound, but the subvocal sound *z*, and that because it is preceded by the subvocals *g* and *d*. Mark the difference in the following plurals, where *s* is preceded by an aspirate : *caps*, *hats*, *locks*.

† Though *d* should represent a subvocal, it takes the sound of its correlative, because it is made to unite with an aspirate.

III. Any consonant sound may unite with a vowel sound as, *an, no, did, call*.

EXERCISE.

Point out the vowel combinations in the following words; tell whether the diphthongs are proper or improper:—

Fear, pear, voice, sound, pierce, receive, Europe, people, view, adieu, beauty, though, chief, fail, Caesar, how, sew, gaol, mail, deal.

Point out the consonant combinations in the following, and tell what letters are identical, and what are changed into their correlatives:—

Birds, blend, apt, capped, clapped, buzz, mats, heads, beads, brought, off, skiff, pass, insist, first, faced, round, word, gird, gold, sold, bulb, verb, worm, last, craft, compact, acts.

SYLLABLES.

ORAL EXERCISES.

The teacher utters the word *bat*, thus, *b—a—t*, and says, How many sounds did you hear? *Ans.* Three. Now, let the class utter the same. How many distinct efforts did you make? *Ans.* Three. Now, utter them all at once, thus, *bat*. How many efforts or impulses now? *Ans.* One. When letters unite so as to be uttered at one impulse, like *bat*, they form a syllable. How many impulses in *bat-ter*? How many in *pe-cu-liar*? Which syllable receives the strongest impulse in *con-trol, in-firm, dear-ly, o-pen*?

A syllable is a letter or combination of letters uttered with one impulse of the voice; as, *mat, mat-ter, ma-te-ri-al*.

The essential part of a syllable is a vowel.

NOTE.—By *vowel* here is meant a vowel sound, whether represented by a single letter, a diphthong, or a triphthong.

A syllable may consist,—

- (1.) Of a vowel; as, *a-cre, ei-ther*.
- (2.) Of a vowel with one or more consonants prefixed; as, *ba-sis, bri-er, three, phthi-sis*.
- (3.) Of a vowel with one or more consonants affixed; as, *in, elf, inter-ests, earths*.
- (4.) Of a vowel with one or more consonants both prefixed and affixed; as, *n-oo-n, tr-u-th, thr-u-sts*.

NOTE.—In the preceding exercises the pupil has been occupied with elementary sounds and the characters which represent them. In this, he is taught the modes of combining these into syllables. It is often necessary to separate a syllable into its elements.

The process of combining elementary parts is called

synthesis, and that of separating a combination into its elements is called *analysis*.

NOTE.—In analyzing a syllable, let the learner tell, (1.) the *essential* part, that is, the vowel or diphthong; (2.) the consonant or consonants which are prefixed to it; (3.) the consonant or consonants which are affixed to it.

MODELS FOR ANALYZING SYLLABLES.

A . . . is a syllable consisting of two elements:—

A is the essential element,—it is a vowel. (Give its sound.)

a is a consonant, and represents a subvocal; it is affixed to *a*. (Give its sound.)

Break . is a syllable consisting of three parts:—

ea is the essential part,—it is a diphthong (why?), improper (why?); *e* is silent,—*a* only is sounded. (Give its sound.)

Br is a union of two consonants, both representing subvocals, *b* and *r*, (Rule 1,) which are prefixed to *ea*. (Give their sounds separately, then together.)

k is a consonant representing an aspirate, and is affixed to *ea*. (Give its sound.)

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following syllables, and describe each element:—

Kite, dog, numb, boat, friend, truth, day, wax, bat, view, sound, aid, meat, suit, rude, the, think, sit, leave, three, bursts, threats.

Form syllables by prefixing ONE consonant to a, ay, ey, ou, ieu, y; TWO OR MORE consonants to e, oo, oe, i, ou, oi, ee, ea, ay, i, ey; by affixing ONE, TWO, OR THREE consonants to any five of the above vowels or diphthongs. Form ten syllables in which one, two, or more consonants shall be prefixed and affixed.

WORDS AS THE REPRESENTATIVES OF SOUNDS.

NOTE.—Written words are used to represent both *sounds* and *ideas*. As the representatives of sounds, they are classified according to the number of syllables they contain.

A word may consist of one syllable alone, or of two or more syllables united.

A word of one syllable is called a *monosyllable*; as, *boy*, *pen*, *tree*.

A word of two syllables is called a *dissyllable*; as, *na-ture*, *faith-ful*.

A word of three syllables is called a *trisyllable*; as, *nat-u-ral*, *faith-ful-ness*.

A word of four or more syllables is called a *polysyllable*; as, *un-nat-u-ral*, *un-faith-ful-ness*.

Accent is a stress of the voice placed upon a particular syllable, to distinguish it from others.

Every word of more than one syllable has one of its syllables accented.

The accented syllable may be either the first, last, or a middle syllable; as, *du'ty*, *be-long'*, *pre-par'ing*.

Some words have a primary and secondary accent; as, *in'defat'igable*, *in'comprehen'sible*.

NOTE. — In separating a word into its syllables, we should divide it as it is pronounced. Thus some pronounce *pa'tri-ot*, others *pa'tri-ot*, and the *t* must be joined to the first or second syllable accordingly. The learner should tell how many syllables a word contains, calling it a *monosyllable*, *dissyllable*, &c.; then point out the accented syllable, and analyze each according to the preceding models. In writing, a *syllable* should never be divided at the end of a line. A word of more than one syllable may be divided, one part being placed at the end of one line, and the other at the beginning of the next.

EXERCISE.*

Analyze and describe the following words :—

Beat, said, tree; friendship, social, himself, stately; complaining, interpret, indolence; incessantly, condemnation, interdicting, domesticate; consanguinity, confederation, impenetrable; mispronunciation, incomprehensible, indefatigable; impenetrability; incomprehensibility.

Correct the accent in the following words :—

Local', indo'lence, memo'able, ig'noble, frequent'ly, lament'able, actu'al, indispu'table, immuta'ble, retro'spect, com'pletion, late'ral. *Change the accent in the following words to the second syllable, and give their meaning:* Au'gust, con'jure, des'ert, en'trance, min'ute, pres'ent, proj'ect, in'valid.

Write the following words upon your slate, and divide them into syllables, marking the accented syllable :—

Conscience, detecting, inability, indubitable, commotion, laborious, relate, detestation, infesting, exemplary.

MODEL. Con'science.

DERIVATIONS.—RULES FOR SPELLING.

REM. — So far as the derivation of words refers to their *application*, and *classification* into parts of speech, the subject properly belongs to the department of Etymology. So far as it refers to changes of letters in spelling, it belongs to Orthography. For the sake of convenience, the following definitions and rules are here inserted.

* Let the teacher first give an oral exercise in which he shall exhibit the accent by his own voice. Then require the pupil to repeat the same.

A word in no way derived from another is a *radical* or *primitive* word ; as, *form, harm*.

A word formed by joining to a primitive some letter or syllable, to modify its meaning, is a *derivative* word ; as, *re-form, harm-less*.

A word formed by uniting two or more entire words is a *compound* word ; as, *inkstand, schoolhouse*.

The parts of those compounds which have been long in use are generally united closely ; as, *nevertheless, sunrise* ; in others, the hyphen (-) is used to separate the parts ; as, *labor-saving*.

EXERCISE.

Tell which of the following words are PRIMITIVE, which DERIVATIVE, and which COMPOUND : —

Bright, fair, told, meek, some, playful, joyless, income, bookstore, playmate, cloud-capped, ink, housetop, fearful, reform, dismember, dreary.

Form derivative words from the following primitives, and draw a line under the added syllable or letter : Hope, fear, harm, love, care, know, peer, ape, weed, cloud, form, grade, place, joy, truth, poet, fade, weep, laugh.

MODEL. *Hopeless.*

Form compound words, by joining some appropriate word to each of the following : Air, chest, alms, bank, birth, bill, fire, eye, weed, toll, wood, foot, work, play, land, busy, tree, breeze.

MODEL. *Air-pump.*

SPELLING.

Spelling is the art of representing words by their proper letters.

PRIMITIVE WORDS.

The spelling of primitive words should be learned mainly from the dictionary or spelling book. The following are the most obvious rules : —

RULE I. Monosyllables ending in *f, l, or s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant ; as, *stuff, bell, miss*. *If, of, as, gas, has, was, yes, is, his, this, us, thus*, are exceptions.

RULE II. Words ending in any other consonant than *f, l, or s*, do not double the final letter ; as, *put, rap, on, trim, brag, star*. *Add, odd, ebb, egg, inn, err, burr, purr, butt, nuzz, fuzz*, are exceptions.

DERIVATIVE WORDS.

In the formation of derivative words, the final letters of the primitive

as well as those of the prefix, often undergo a change. Hence the following rules should be studied with care.

PREFIXES.

That part of a derivative word which is placed *before* the radical is called a *prefix*; as, *re*-turn, *pre*-pay.

In applying prefixes to radicals, certain changes often take place, to render the sound more agreeable. These changes are made according to the following rules:—

RULE I. DROPPING THE FINAL LETTER.—The final letter of a prefix is sometimes omitted; as, *co*-existent, for *con*-existent; *ant*-arctic, for *anti*-arctic.

RULE II. CHANGING THE FINAL LETTER.—The final letter of a prefix is often changed to one which will harmonize, in sound, with the initial letter of the radical; as, *im*-pious, for *in*-pious.

The final letter of the prefix generally becomes the same as the first letter of the radical; as, *il*-limitable.

The principal prefixes which undergo this change are *ad*, (ac, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, at;) *con*, (cog, com, col, cor;) *en*, (em;) *e*, (ex, ec, ef;) *dis*, (dif, di;) *ob*, (of, oc, op;) *sub*, (suc, suf, sug, sup, sur;) *syn*, (sym, syl.)

EXERCISE ON RULES I. II.

Write derivatives by prefixing anti to arctic; con to temporary, laborer, extensive, location, mend, mix, mingle, nomen, relative; ad to scribe, credit, firm, fluent, legation, rest, point, ply, tempt; in to religious, legal, legible, liberal, noble, perfect, penitent, potent, prove; en to body, broil; ob to position, press, cur, fend; sub to cession, fix, fumigation, fusion, gest, press, render; syn to pathetic, logistic; ex to centric, flux; dis to fuse, late.

Correct the following examples by Rule II: Inply, subrender, immediate, synpathetic, adlegation, adfect, adcredit, obpose, obportunity, exfect, disfer, inluminare, conlect, commend, employ, subgest.

NOTE.—The most common prefixes are contained in the following list. They are chiefly prepositions of Saxon, Latin, or Greek origin. The roots to which they are prefixed are not always used as distinct words in the English language. The meaning of such radicals may generally be determined by applying different prefixes. Thus, in *im*-pel, *ex*-pel, *dis*-pel, *compel*, *pro*-pel, one would readily see, by comparison, that *pel* means *to drive*. These exercises on the prefixes may be omitted the first time of going through the Grammar.

PREFIXES OF SAXON ORIGIN.

Prefix.	Signification.	Example.
A.	on or in.	Aboard, ashore.
Be.	near, on, for, over.	Beside, beatir.
For.	against, not, from.	Forbid, forsake.

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Signification.</i>	<i>Example</i>
Fore.	<i>before.</i>	<i>Foresee, foretell.</i>
Mis.	<i>wrong, error.</i>	<i>Mistake, misspell.</i>
Over.	<i>above, beyond.</i>	<i>Overdo, overload.</i>
Out.	<i>beyond, more.</i>	<i>Outrun, outdo.</i>
Un.	<i>not, negation.</i>	<i>Unwise, unkind.</i>
Under.	<i>beneath, inferior.</i>	<i>Understand, undergo.</i>
Up.	<i>above, up, subversion.</i>	<i>Uplift, upset.</i>
With.	<i>against, from.</i>	<i>Withstand, withdraw</i>

PREFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN.

A, ab, abs.	<i>from, away.</i>	<i>Abstract, avert.</i>
Ad.*	<i>to, at, towards.</i>	<i>Adjoin, approach (move).</i>
Ante.	<i>before.</i>	<i>Antecedent (going).</i>
Bene.	<i>good, well.</i>	<i>Benevolent, beneficent (doing).</i>
Bis or Bi.	<i>twice, two.</i>	<i>Bisect (cut), biped (feet).</i>
Circum.	<i>around, about.</i>	<i>Circumnavigate (sail).</i>
Cis.	<i>on this side.</i>	<i>Cisalpine.</i>
Con.*	<i>together, with.</i>	<i>Collect, confine.</i>
Contra.	<i>against.</i>	<i>Contradict (speak).</i>
De.	<i>from, down.</i>	<i>Dethrone, detract (draw).</i>
Dis.*	<i>asunder.</i>	<i>Distract, divert (turn).</i>
E (ex).*	<i>out of, from.</i>	<i>Eject (drive), expel (cast).</i>
Extra.	<i>beyond.</i>	<i>Extraordinary.</i>
In.*	<i>into, in; not.†</i>	<i>Inform, include; inactive</i>
Inter.	<i>between.</i>	<i>Interpose (place).</i>
Intro.	<i>in, within.</i>	<i>Introduce (lead).</i>
Non.	<i>not.</i>	<i>Nonconformist.</i>
Ob.*	<i>against.</i>	<i>Obstruct (build).</i>
Per.	<i>through, by,</i>	<i>Perfect (made).</i>
Post.	<i>after.</i>	<i>Postpone (place).</i>
Pre.	<i>before.</i>	<i>Precede (go).</i>
Pro.	<i>for, forth, forwards.</i>	<i>Pronoun, progress (go).</i>
Preter.	<i>past, beyond.</i>	<i>Preternatural.</i>
Re.	<i>back, again.</i>	<i>Recall.</i>
Retro.	<i>backwards.</i>	<i>Retrograde (move).</i>
Se.	<i>apart, separation.</i>	<i>Secede (go).</i>
Sine.	<i>without.</i>	<i>Sinecure (care).</i>
Sub.*	<i>under.</i>	<i>Subscribe (write).</i>
Super.	<i>over, beyond.</i>	<i>Superscribe (write).</i>
Trans.	<i>over, change.</i>	<i>Transplant.</i>
Uni.	<i>one.</i>	<i>Uniform.</i>

GREEK PREFIXES.

A or an.	<i>without.</i>	<i>Anonymous (name).</i>
Amphi.	<i>both, double.</i>	<i>Amphibious (living).</i>
Ana.	<i>through, up.</i>	<i>Anatomy (cut).</i>
Anti.	<i>against.</i>	<i>Antichristian.</i>
Apo or Aph.	<i>from.</i>	<i>Apogee (earth).</i>
Dia.	<i>through.</i>	<i>Diameter (measure).</i>
Epi.	<i>upon.</i>	<i>Epitaph (tomb).</i>
Hyper.	<i>over, above.</i>	<i>Hypercritical.</i>
Hypo.	<i>under.</i>	<i>Hypocrite.</i>

* Those prefixes marked with the star have other forms.

† Before a verb, *in* signifies *into*, *in*, and sometimes *against*; before an adjective, *in* has a negative meaning.

Prefix.	Signification.	Example.
Meta or Meth.	<i>change, beyond.</i>	<i>Metamorphose (form).</i>
Para.	<i>from, against.</i>	<i>Paradox (opinion).</i>
Peri.	<i>around.</i>	<i>Perimeter (measure).</i>
Syn.*	<i>with.</i>	<i>Sympathy (feeling).</i>

NOTE.—Many of the roots to which the prefixes are added are not distinct words in the English language. In the following exercises, as in the above examples, such roots will be defined in a parenthesis. The pupil should analyze derivative words according to the following:—

MODEL FOR ANALYSIS.

Impenitent . . . is a derivative word. (Why?)
Penitent is the radical part, and signifies *repenting*.
Im is the prefix (*in*, Rule II.), and signifies *not*.
Hence, *IMPENITENT*, *not repenting*.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following derivative words according to the model:—

Aboard, aground, accredit, accustom, aggrieve, antepast (taste), forgive, bestir, foreknow, misplace, overtake, abstract (draw), outrun, uncommon, adjoin, understand, uphold, withdraw, benevolent (wishing), circumscribe (write or mark), cisalpine, bivalve, complete (fill), dispel (drive), imprint, interdict (speak), oppose (place), pervade (pass), premeditate, preoccupy, post mortem (death), progress (go), refer (carry), reanimate, subterraneous, (earth), support (bear), superstructure, transpose (place), acephalous (head), antipathy (feeling), apostatize (standing), aphæresis (taking), diagonal (angle), epitaph (tomb), paraphrase (speaking), periphrasis.

Study the list of prefixes, and then add to the following roots all that may be used appropriately. Define each word.

Form spire † (to breathe), rect (to make straight), part, sign, sume (to take), scribe, (to write), tract (to draw), duce (to lead), sist (to stand), lude (to play), cede (to go, to yield), clude (to shut or close), port (to carry), act, claim (to call or speak), natural, sure, prove, join, struct (to build), course, cur (to run), vention (the act of coming or going), graph (marked or written), fuse, press, pel (to urge or drive), volve (to roll or turn), gress (to step, pass), flux, flux, fer or late (to bear, carry), mise or mit (to send), tain (to hold), dict (to speak), pose (to place), vers or vert (to turn).

MODEL.

Conform, to form *together*, i. e., to assimilate, to yield to custom.
Reform, to form *again*, i. e., to renew.
Inform, to form *in* [the mind], i. e., to tell.
Deform, to form *from* [the proper shape], i. e., to disfigure.
Perform, to form *through*, i. e., thoroughly, to complete.
Transform, to form *over*, i. e., to change the form.

NOTE.—By exercises like the above, multiplied at the discretion of the teacher, the pupil may soon perceive the force of all the prefixes. It is a

* These prefixes marked with the star have other forms.

† To many of the radicals *two* prefixes are added, each having its peculiar force as, *re-son-struct*, *re-ad-mit*. The pupil should explain each.

good exercise to take the dictionary and require the pupil to explain all the derivatives from any given root

SUFFIXES.

That part of a derivative word which is placed *after* the radical is called a *suffix*; as, faith-*ful*, end-*less*.

NOTE. — In applying suffixes, the final letter or letters of the radical are often changed. Such changes are made according to the following rules: —

RULE I. DOUBLING THE FINAL LETTER. — On receiving a suffix beginning with a vowel, the final consonant of a monosyllable, or of any word accented on the last syllable, is doubled, if the radical ends with a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel; otherwise it remains single; as, dig-*ing*, dig-*ging*; defer-*ing*, defer-*ring*. Not so repair-*ing*, defend-*ing*, differ-*ing*.

Many words ending in *l*; as, travel, libel, cancel, cavil, chisel, counsel, duel, equal, gravel, model, pencil, revel, rival, trammel, tunnel, &c., double the *l* on receiving a suffix beginning with a vowel, though not accented on the last syllable. To these add worship, bias, kidnap; worship-*ping*, bias-*sing*, kidnap-*ping*.

RULE II. DROPPING THE FINAL LETTER. — On receiving a suffix beginning with a vowel, the final vowel of the radical is dropped in most words ending in *e* silent; as, love-*ing*, loving; also in some words ending in *y* and *i*; as, felicity-*ate*, felicitate; deism, deism.

Contrary to the general rule, the final *e* is retained, when preceded by *c* or *g*; as, peace-*able*, peaceable; change-*able*, changeable; to preserve the soft sound of those letters. So also we have singe-*ing* and swinge-*ing*, to distinguish them from sing-*ing*, swing-*ing*.

The final letters *le*, when followed by *ly*, are dropped; as, noble-*ly*, nobly. So also *t* or *te* before *ce* or *cy*; as, vagrant-*cy*, vagrancy; prelate-*cy*, prelacy.

Words ending in *ll* usually drop one *l* on taking an additional syllable beginning with a consonant; as, skill-*ful*, skilful.

RULE III. CHANGING THE FINAL LETTER. — The final *y* of a radical word is generally changed to *i*, if preceded by a consonant; otherwise it usually remains unchanged; as, happy-*est*, happiest; duty-*es*, duties; day-*s*, days.

The *f*, in words ending in *f* or *fe*, is generally changed to *v*, when the suffix begins with a vowel; as, life, lives.

To prevent doubling *i*, the *y* is not changed when the suffix begins with

s; as, marry-*ing*, marrying. For the same reason, the *s* being dropped by Rule 11., in *die*, *lie*, *tie*, *vie*, the *i* is changed to *y*; as, dying, lying, tying, vying.

EXERCISES ON THE RULES.

Add *ING*, *ED*, or *ER*, to beg, sit, dig, dim, bed, dog, let, bet, prefer, transfer, forget, dispel, propel, benefit, control, travel, level, counsel; love, compile, receive, leave, grieve, confine, define. Add *ABLE* to peace, change, sale; — *LY* to able, disagreeable, conformable, idle, noble; — *FUL* to skill, will; — *ES*, *ED*, or *ING*, to duty, lily, glory, story, history, beauty, beautify, amplify, rectify.

Correct the following; and explain your corrections: —

Beding, beting, wifes, debared, abhorrent, alkalioid, glorious, citys, fancyful, tarring, carrying, dutiful, bountiful, handsomeest, blotting, famous, agreeable incompatible.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL SUFFIXES

The following list contains the principal suffixes. They signify, —

I. THE PERSON WHO, *the female who*: Ant, ar, ard, ary, eer, er, ee, ent, ist, ite, ian, ive, or, ner, ster, yer, zen; ess, res, ix, ine.

EXAMPLES. African, *one who lives in Africa*. Servant, *one who serves*. Beggar, *one who begs*. Adversary, *one who opposes*. So, dotard, chariot-*eer*, laborer, mortgagee, president, economist, favorite, arithmetician, operative, actor, partner, teamster, lawyer, citizen; poetess, instructress, testatrix, heroine.

II. THE THING WHICH, *the act of, the quality of, or state of*: Acy, age, al, ade, any, ance, ency, ence, ety, hood, ion, ism, ice, ment, mony, ness, ry, ship, ude (tude), th, ty, ure, dom, ric.

EXAMPLES. Privacy, *the state of being private*. Justice, *that which is just*. Meekness, *the quality of being meek*. So, bondage, refusal, cannonade, expectancy, repentance, penitence, emergency, variety, childhood, erection, despotism, commandment, acrimony, goodness, rivalry, scholarship, quietude, truth, novelty, pressure, Christendom, bishopric.

III. THE PROPERTY *pertaining to, belonging to, or abounding in*: Ac, al, an (ian, ean,) ar, ary, ate, ic (tic or atic), ile, ine, ory, ose (ious, eous, uous), ful, ey, y.

EXAMPLES. Elegiac, *pertaining to an elegy*. Mountainous, *abounding in mountains*. So, autumnal, antediluvian, emblematic, lunatic, consular, discretionary, juvenile, adamant, transitory, verbose, wondrous, affectionate, hopeful, sunny.

IV. TO CAUSE, TO MAKE: Ate (iate, uate), en, fy, ish, ise, ise.

EXAMPLES. Alienate, *to make an alien*. So, justify, stabl~~ish~~, soften, civilise, criticise.

V. DIMINUTION: Cle, cule, kin, let, ling, ock.

EXAMPLES. Corpuscle, *a little body or particle*. So, animalcule, lambkin, eaglet, duckling, hillock.

VI. (*Miscellaneous*;) Oid, like; as, spheroid — ive, *tending to*; as, delusive — ward, *towards*; as, eastward — less, *without*; as, sleepless — ics, *science of*; as, mathematics — ish, *somewhat*; as, bluish — like, *resembling*; as, warlike — ly, *in manner*; as, wisely — able (ible), *capable of*; as, credible.

NOTE. — The following terminations are properly grammatical *inflections*, used to denote the accidents of the *noun*, *verb*, *adjective*, or *adverb* : —

s or ES, . . . *more than one*, (plural) ; as, birds,* churches.
ED, . . . *past time*, or *the passive state* ; as, loved, (did love, or was loved.)
ING, . . . *continuing to do* ; as, loving.
ER, EST, . . . *more, most* ; as, warmer, warmest.

NOTE. — The general significations of the various suffixes are given in the above list. The particular variations of these meanings, to suit given cases, will readily suggest themselves.

MODEL FOR ANALYSIS.

Quietude. It is a derivative word. (Why?)
Quiet is the radical part, and signifies *rest*.
Ude is the suffix, and signifies *state of*.
Hence QUIET-UDE, *state of rest*.

NOTE. — By combining this with the preceding model, the pupil can analyze all words having both a prefix and a suffix. All compounds may be analyzed according to the following

MODEL.

Sea-breeze . . is a compound word, (why?) formed from
sea, which means the *ocean*, and
breeze, which means a *gentle wind*.
Hence SEA-BREEZE, *a gentle wind from the ocean*.

EXERCISE.

Study the list of suffixes and prefixes, and then analyze the following derivative words : —

Incomplete, famous, peerage, childhood, peaceable, animalcule, pupilage, globule, hopeful, kingdom, friendship, expectation, indecisive, incompatible, incomprehensibility, righteous, signature, prepossession, dissimilarity, discovery, recoverable, reorganize, transparency, debasement, promotion, derangement, reinstate, predisposition, illumination, ignominiously, allegation, confederation, impenetrability, disqualification.

Analyze the following compound words : —

Seahorse, timepiece, cloudcapped, fireplace, inkstand, tree-top, wood house, schoolroom, mousetrap, whaleship, sunrise, drawbridge, newspaper copy-book, breastplate, eyesight, airpump, cornstalk, woodpile.

Add as many prefixes and suffixes as you can to the following radicals, and count the number of words you form from each : —

Firm, gress (go), press, grade, range, merge, number, face, brace, value, measure, like, state, cloud, fair, stable, equal, print, trust, burden, mix, mount, line, social, move, base, animate, judge, test, use, lay, figure, firm, rene (come), join, struct (build), charge, cede, serve, tend.

* When s or es are added to the present tense of the verb, they denote the singular number.

MODEL

FORM — forms, former, formed, forming, formation, formal, formally, formality, formalist, formalism, formative, reform, reforms, reformed, reforming, reformation, reformatory, reformative, reformer, inform, informs, informer, informed, informing, informal, informally, informality, informant, misinform, misinformed, perform, performs, performer, performed, performing, performance, performable, deform, deforms, deformed, deforming, deformity, transform, transforms, transforming, transformed, transformation, conform, conforms, conforming, conformed, conformer, conformable, conformably, conformation, conformist, conformity, nonconformist, nonconformity, uniform, uniformed, uniform, uniforms, uniformly, uniformity. 65 words.

RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

- (1.) The first word of every entire sentence should begin with a capital; as, "*Jesus wept.*"
- (2.) Titles of honor and respect, and every proper name, and every adjective derived from a proper name, should begin with a capital; as, *His Highness, Boston, Bostonian.*
- (3.) Every appellation of the Deity should begin with a capital; as *God, Jehovah, the Eternal.*
- (4.) The first word of every line in poetry should begin with a capital.
- (5.) The words *I* and *O* should always be capitals.
- (6.) Any important word may begin with a capital.
- (7.) The principal words in the titles of books should begin with capitals; as, *Pope's "Essay on Man."*
- (8.) The first word of a direct quotation, when the quotation forms a complete sentence by itself, should begin with a capital.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology treats of the classification, derivation, and various modifications of words.

A word is the sign of an idea, and is either spoken or written.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

According to their *meaning* and *use*, all words are divided into eight classes, called *Parts of Speech*.

All words are divided, according to the number of syllables they contain, into *monosyllables*, *disyllables*, *trisyllables*, and *polysyllables*.

Words are divided, according to their *formation*, into *primitive*, *derivative*, and *compound*.

A primitive word is always a *simple* word.

Words which vary their forms in *construction* are called *declinable*. Those which do not vary them are *indeclinable*.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

In English, there are eight parts of speech — the *Noun*, the *Adjective*, the *Pronoun*, the *Verb*, the *Adverb*, the *Preposition*, the *Conjunction*, and the *Interjection*.

A *noun* is the name of an object ; as, *fruit, Henry, Boston*.

The noun (from the Latin *nomen*, a *name*) embraces a large number of words. All words which are the names of *persons, animals, places*, or *things*, material or immaterial, are called nouns.

An *adjective* is a word used to limit or qualify the meaning of a noun or pronoun ; as, *good, faithful, this, some*.

The adjective (from the Latin *adjectus*, *added to*, i. e., to a noun) embraces a large class of words, which are added to nouns to express their qualities, or define them ; as, "*worthy citizens* ;" "*this book*." All words which are united to nouns answering such questions as *What? What kind? How many?* are adjectives.

A *pronoun* is a word which takes the place of a noun ; as, *I, he, you, who*.

This part of speech (derived from the Latin *pro* and *nomen*, *for a name*) embraces but a small number of different words ; yet any noun may be represented by a pronoun. It will be seen that these three parts of speech are intimately connected : the first is the *name* of an object ; the second expresses the properties of the first ; the third may take the place of the first.

A *verb* is a word which expresses *being, action, or state* ; as, *be, read, sleep, is loved*.

Nothing can be affirmed without a verb. It is derived from the Latin *verbum*, the *word*, i. e., the important word ; it embraces a large class of words. The different *uses* of the verb, as well as those of the other parts of speech, will be explained hereafter.

An *adverb* is used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb ; as, *quickly, first, far*.

The adverb (from the Latin *ad* and *verbum*, *added to a verb*) embraces all those words which are added to verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, to denote *time, place, and manner*.

A *preposition* is a word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word ; as, *from, upon, on, with*.

This part of speech includes a small list of words, which are used to denote the relations of *place, time, cause, manner, property, quality*, &c. It is called a preposition (from the Latin *præ*, *before*, and *positio*, a *placing, placed before*) from the circumstance of its being placed before the object with which it is always associated.

A *conjunction* is a word used to connect either words phrases, or propositions ; as, *and*, *but*, *or*.

The conjunction includes but a small class of words, which are used to join the parts of a sentence ; it is derived from the Latin *conjunctus*, *joined*.

The *interjection* is used to express some emotion of the mind ; as, *O ! alas !*

The term *interjection* (from the Latin *interjectus*, *thrown between*) is applied to a few words that do not enter into the structure of a sentence, but may be thrown in at pleasure, to express our feelings.

NOUNS.

A *noun* is the name of an object ; a , *house*, *tree*, *Boston* *goodness*.

REM. 1. — The word *object*, as here used, should be carefully distinguished from the same term employed in Syntax, to denote the complement of the transitive verb. It here denotes every species of existence, material or immaterial, which may be considered independently or alone ; and is opposed to the term *attribute*, which always represents something dependent upon, belonging to, or inherent in an object.* Thus *apple* is the name of the object, — the *substance* which embraces every possible property of the apple, — while *sweet* is the name of one of its attributes, and when used concretely, exists only in connection with the object, not independently and alone. These fundamental distinctions gave rise, among the earlier grammarians, to the terms *noun substantive*, or name of the substance, (object,) for the former, and *noun adjective*, or name of the attribute, (something added to the substance,) for the latter. Subsequently, the former term was abbreviated into *substantive*, afterwards *noun*, and the latter into *adjective*.

REM. 2. — It will be perceived that the idea of substance or independent existence is the basis of the distinction between the noun and the adjective ; yet it must be remembered that nouns or adjectives are mere *words*, so called, because the one denotes a substance, or an object, and the other an attribute.

REM. 3. — It will be seen, moreover, that an attribute, when regarded as an independent existence, that is, when *abstracted* from the object to which it belongs, becomes an object of itself. Its name, whether changed or not, ought to be a noun. To show the change, however, the word denoting the attribute generally undergoes some change ; as, *good*, *good-ness*, *bright*, *bright-ness*.

REM. 4. — Whenever a word, syllable, letter, or symbol of any kind is spoken of as an object, it must be regarded as a noun ; as, “ *We* is a personal pronoun.” “ *Un* is a prefix.” “ *A* is a vowel.” “ *+* is the sign of addition.” “ *,* is a comma.”

REM. 5. — So, again, when a phrase, or a clause of a sentence, is used to denote an object, it becomes a noun ; as, “ *To see the sun* is pleasant.” “ *That you have wronged me* doth appear in this.”

* NOTE TO THE TEACHER. — It is all-important that the learner acquire the habit of distinguishing, at the outset, between an object and an attribute. This can be best done by lessons on objects and their attributes. (See Introduction.) It will make the distinction a matter of *conception*, rather than of mere memory.

REM. 6. — The noun is often called a *substantive*. All phrases or clauses, used as nouns, are called *substantive* phrases or clauses.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

NOTE. — For an oral exercise, see Introduction, pages xxix and xxx.

Nouns are divided into two classes — *proper* and *common*.

A *proper* noun is the name of an individual object ; as, *James, Erie*.

A *common* noun is a name which applies to each individual of a class of objects ; as, *man, boy, house*.

REM. 1. — As a proper noun denotes simply an individual, whenever it is made to represent an individual as belonging to a class, it becomes a common noun ; as, "He is the *Cicero* of his age," i. e., a distinguished orator.

REM. 2. — Common nouns, on the contrary, may become proper, when, by personification, or special use, the object named is regarded as an individual, not belonging to a class ; as, "O *Justice*, thou art fled to brutish beasts, and men have lost their reason." "The *Common*." "The *Park*."

Under the head of common nouns are commonly reckoned *collective*, *abstract*, and *verbal* nouns.

A *collective* noun is one which, in the singular, denotes more than one object ; as, *army, family, flock*.

An *abstract* noun is the name of a *quality* or an *action*, considered apart from the object to which it belongs ; as, *goodness, virtue, wisdom, movement*.

A *verbal* noun is a *participle* used as a noun ; as, "He was convicted of *stealing*."

The *infinitive* is a kind of verbal noun ; as, "To see the sun is pleasant."

To nouns belong *person, number, gender, and case*.

EXERCISES.

Tell which of the following words designate objects, and which properties ; then select the nouns : —

Horse, old, good, peach, vine, heavy, dell, hard, strong, hill, star, empty, ocean, hilly, wright, William, European, engine, saline, road, top, stile, bog, rose, upright, smith, smart, weed, smithy, smoke, balloon, oyster, sea, chariot, wild, hungry, thirst, delay, duty.

Select the nouns from the following sentence : —

As soon as the sun was seen coming over the hills, the farmer aroused the laborers from slumber, who, with their scythes on their shoulders, and pitchforks in their hands, marched gayly to the field to begin the labors of the day.

Tell which of the following nouns are common, and which are proper : —

Posterity, virtue, Rome, tea, Nero, Cicero, Germany, Paris, pomp, sun-

shine, meadow, Pekin, gulf, Medici, astronomy, Darius, father, calico, London, dungeon, district, Sicily.

Tell which of the following common nouns are abstract, which are collective, which are verbal : —

Army, tasting, goodness, heat, harness, rising, sailing, wisdom, flock, wonder, teaching, energy, frankness, freedom, school, destiny, household, multitude, teething, shutting, dulness, company.

Change the following names of properties into abstract nouns : —

Good, cheerful, diligent, rapid, powerful, dark, strong, heavy, lovely, brilliant, beautiful, flaming, brave, swift, lame, solid, soft, thick, easy, strange. Thus, good, goodness.

Write the names of fifteen objects in this room ; also write the names of such objects at home as you can recall.

Fill the blanks in the following examples with nouns of your own selection : —

_____ is short. _____ are strong. _____ have fallen. _____ is a quadruped. _____ were destroyed. _____ will decay. _____ will rise at six o'clock. _____ is the king of beasts. _____ was the father of his country. _____ was a tyrant. _____ were overthrown in the Red Sea. _____ mourned for Absalom. _____ shine at night.

PERSON.

NOTE. — Review the oral exercise in the Introduction, page xxxiii.

Person is that property of a noun or pronoun which shows its relation to the speaker.

A noun or pronoun must represent either the *speaker*, the person *spoken to*, or the person or thing *spoken of*.

There are three persons — the *first*, *second*, and *third*.

The *first* person denotes the speaker ; as, "*I, John*, saw."

The *second* person denotes the person spoken to ; as "*Children*, obey your parents."

The *third* person denotes the person or thing spoken of ; as, "*Thomas* did not come." "*The harvest* is abundant."

REM. 1. — Nouns in the first or second person are never used as the subject or object of a verb, but may be put in apposition with either, for the purpose of explanation ; as, "*I, Paul*, beseech you."

REM. 2. — The names of inanimate objects are in the second person, when the objects to which they apply are spoken to. Objects thus addressed are personified, and are treated as though they were actual hearers ; as, "*And I have loved thee, Ocean*."

EXERCISE.

Tell the person of the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences : —

Nero was a tyrant. Children, obey your parents. Philip, thou art a man. Delays are dangerous. We cannot tamper with temptation. The

ferryman took us safely across the river. Keep thy heart with all diligence. We should love our country. King Philip was the last of the Wampanoags. "Let my country be thine," said his preserver. Babylon, how art thou fallen! The lady loves her will.

Fill the blanks in the following expressions; tell the person of the noun or pronoun inserted:—

— was executed for murder. — art the man. The lady lost — purse and all — contents. — are willing to remain. — hast strangely ended. — delight in surf bathing. The father called — sons and — daughters around —. The duke was esteemed for — uprightness, and the duchess beloved for — kindness. Art — a spirit of earth or air? — wast wrong to urge me so.

NUMBER OF NOUNS.*

Number is that property of a noun which distinguishes one object from more than one.

Nouns have two numbers — the *singular* and the *plural*.

The *singular* number denotes but one object; as, *horse, river, nation*.

The *plural* denotes more than one object; as, *horses, rivers, nations*.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL

I. The plural of nouns is *regularly* formed,—

(1.) By adding *s*, when the singular ends with a sound that can unite or coalesce with *s*; as, *book, books; tree, trees*.

(2.) By adding *es*, when the singular ends with a sound that cannot unite or coalesce with *s*; as *box, boxes; church churches*.

REM. 1. — When *es* is added, *s* has the sound of *z*; as, *fox, foxes*; when *s* only is added, it has the sound of *z* when it unites or coalesces with a vowel; as, *folio, folios; flea, fleas*. It follows the rule (see Rule 1, page 7) for the combination of consonants, when it follows a consonant; that is, it is *s* aspirate when it unites with an aspirate; as, *hat, hats; cap, caps; surf, surfs; clock, clocks*; it is *s* subvocal (or *z*) when it follows a subvocal; as, *lad, lads; log, logs; ball, balls; farm, farms; fan, fans; war wars*.

* Let the teacher give an oral exercise before commencing "Number of Nouns. Its object should be to show that number has reference to one, or more than one. First, take one *book*, or any other object, and ask, "How many do I hold up?" *Ans.* One *book*. Spell the word or write it on the slate. How many now? *Ans.* Two *books*. What letter is added? Why is it added? How many now? *Ans.* Three *books*. Are any more letters added? *Ans.* No more. How would you write the word if there were twenty books? *Ans.* The same as when there were two or three

REM. 2. — The *s* or *es* adds a syllable when it does not coalesce with the final syllable of the singular; as, *church, church-es*; *race, rac-es*; *cage, cag-es*. The *s* or *es* does not add a syllable when it does coalesce with the final syllable; as, *work, works*; *echo, echoes*.

II. The plural is *irregularly* formed in various ways.

(1.) When the final *s*, contrary to the rule, (see REM. 1, above,) is subvocal, after the aspirate sounds *f*, *fe*, the *f* must be changed (see Rule 1, page 7) into its correlative *v*; as, *loaf, loaves*; *life, lives*; *sheaf, sheaves*; *thief, thieves*. When *s* is aspirate, as in the plurals of *dwarf, brief, scarf, reef, chief, grief, kerchief, handkerchief, gulf, surf, turf, serf, proof, hoof, roof, safe, fife, strife*, the *f* is not changed. *Staff*, when meaning a stick, has *staves* for its plural; when meaning a set of officers, it has *staffs*. The plural of *wharf*, in the United States, is *wharves*; in England, *wharfs*.

NOTE. — The *s* added to *th* aspirate is also subvocal, (except in *truth, youth*, and, it may be, a few others,) and would cause a similar change in the orthography of the plural, were not the correlative also represented by *th*; as, *oath, oaths*; *bath, baths*.

(2.) Most nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a consonant, add *es*, notwithstanding *s* alone would coalesce with *o*; as, *cargo, cargoes*. Yet *canto, grotto, quarto, junto, duodecimo, octavo, solo, portico, tyro, halo*, add only *s*. But by some writers *es* is added. Nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a vowel, follow the general rule; as, *folio, folios*; *cameo, cameos*.

(3.) Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *ies*; as, *glory, glories*; *mercy, mercies*. Formerly, these words, in the singular, ended in *ie*; as, *glorie, mercie*; their plurals were then formed regularly. Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a vowel, form the plural regularly; as, *day, days*; *key, keys*.

(4.) The following plurals are very irregular; as, *man, men*; *woman, women*; *brother, brethren, or brothers*; *ox, oxen*; *goose, geese*; *child, children*; *foot, feet*; *louse, lice*; *mouse, mice*; *die, dice* (meaning a cube used in gaming), *dies* (meaning a stamp); *pea, peas, or pease*; *tooth, teeth*; *penny, pennies* (coins), *perce* (a sum or value).

(5.) Names of substance, and most abstract nouns, commonly have no plural form; as, *gold, cider, flax, milk, tar, goodness, darkness*. When different kinds of the substance are referred to, the plural is added; as, *waters, wines, teas*.

(6.) In compound words, if the word denoting the principal idea is placed first, it is changed to form the plural; as, *court-martial, courts-martial*; *cousin-german, cousins-german*; *hanger-on, hangers-on*; but if the principal word is placed last, the final word is changed; as, *hand-ful, hand-fuls*; *man-servant, woman-servant*, and *knight-templar* change both; as, *men-servants, women-servants, knights-templars*.

(7.) Letters, marks, figures, and signs are pluralized by adding *'s*; as, the *s's*; the *i's*; the **'s*; the *9's*; the *+*'s.

(8.) On the use of the plural of proper names with a title prefixed, the opinions of writers are divided. The following rules have the authority of good usage:—

(a.) A proper name with the title of Mrs., or the ordinal numbers, *two, three, four*, &c., prefixed, when used in the plural, is *itself* changed, and not the title; as, "the Mrs. Livingstons;" "the two Dr. Warrens."

(b.) In addressing two or more persons of the same family, or of different names, the *title* alone is changed; as, "the Misses Livingston;" "Messrs. Walker." But either of the following forms may be used; "the Miss Rands," or "the Misses Rand;" "the Mr. Walkers," or "the Messrs. Walkers."

(9.) Many nouns from foreign languages retain their original plurals; as, *antithesis, antitheses; automaton, automata; axis, axes; bandit, banditti; beau, beaux; cherub, cherubim; criterion, criteria; datum, data; desideratum, desiderata; encomium, encomia; erratum, errata; focus, foci; formula, formulæ; hypothesis, hypotheses; madame, mesdames; magus, magi; memorandum, memoranda; monsieur, messieurs; nebula, nebulae; phenomenon, phenomena; radius, radii; seraph, seraphim; stimulus, stimuli; stratum, strata.*

REMARKS ON THE NUMBER OF NOUNS.

NOUNS WITHOUT THE PLURAL. REM. 1. — Proper names, when applied to individuals, strictly speaking, do not admit of a plural form. But when several of the same name or family are spoken of together, the noun takes the plural, according to the general rule; as, "the Cæsars;" "the Stuarts;" "the Harpers."

NOUNS WITHOUT THE SINGULAR. REM. 2. — The following nouns have no singular: *embers, oats, scissors, vespers, literati, antipodes, ashes, clothes, billiards, ides, intestines, vitals, bellows, drawers, nippers, tongs, shears, &c. Lungs, bowels*, and some others have a singular denoting a part of the whole; as, *lung, bowel*.

REM. 3. — The following words are plural in respect to their original form, but singular or plural in respect to their meaning: *alms, amends, news, riches, pains*, (meaning effort,) *odds, wages, molasses, series, suits, corps, measles, tidings, mumps, rickets, nuptials*; as also the names of some of the sciences; as, *mathematics, ethics, optics, statics, mechanics, mnemonics*.

NOTE. — *News* is now regarded as singular; so also *measles* and *molasses*, although they have the plural form.

NOUNS EITHER SINGULAR OR PLURAL. REM. 4. — Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, *deer, sheep, swine, vermin, hose, fry, trout, salmon, brace, dozen, yoke, gross*.

EXERCISE.

NUMBER OF NOUNS.

NOTE. — Let the teacher give short sentences in the singular, as, *water flows*, and require the learner to change the nouns to the plural.

Tell which of the following nouns are singular, and which are plural: —

Daughter, day, chairs, watches, apple, pears, stars, oats, coat, nails, ink stand, horn, hearts, hoof, books, bundle, home, canes, umbrellas, markets flower, leaf.

Write the plural of the following nouns, and give the rule for the termination: —

Work, example, lady, oak, horse, hope, stratagem, ferry, leaf, storm, bird, bond, thief, dreg, sex, trick, band, bottle, day, filly, half, watch, iron vinegar.

Tell the singular of the following: —

Heroes, pence, strata, teeth, dies, memoranda, children, mice, hypotheses, messieurs, brethren, scissors, seraphim, axes, snuffers, errata, cherubim, sheep, formulae, swine, sol's, flies, knives, riches, mottoes, octaves courts-martial, inkstands.

Fill the following blanks ; the first five with common nouns in the singular number : —

_____ is a noble animal. _____ is a virtue. _____ cannot be seen. _____ must be avoided. _____ had reached the meridian. The next five with proper nouns in the singular : _____ descended the Alps. _____ was not at home. _____ crossed the Delaware. _____ was the Emperor of Rome. _____ was a valiant soldier. The next five with abstract, verbal, or collective nouns : _____ on the water is a pleasant amusement. _____ was scattered by the wolves. _____ is the mother of vice. _____ was collected around the hearth-stone. _____ from friends is painful. The next five with nouns which do not admit of a plural : _____ is sour. _____ is found in Pennsylvania. _____ goes before a fall. _____ is situated on the Danube. _____ is transparent. The next five with nouns which do not admit of a singular : _____ must be ground. _____ take to themselves wings. _____ were joyful. _____ were made of brass. _____ were voted by the assembly.

Correct the following plurals, and give the rule or remarks for the correction : —

Heros, negros, folioes, vallies, dutys, thieves, calfs, stratums, phenomenons, cherubims, mans, turkies, flys, court-martials, father-in-laws, son-in-laws, cupsfull, seraphims.

Tell the nouns and pronouns in the following sentence ; tell the person and number of each : —

"Thy testimonies have I taken as an heritage forever, for they are the rejoicing of my heart."

GENDER.

Gender is a distinction of nouns in regard to sex.

There are three genders — the *masculine*, the *feminine*, and the *neuter*.

Nouns which denote males are of the *masculine* gender ; as, *man, king, hero*.

Nouns which denote females are of the *feminine* gender ; as, *woman, queen, mother*.

Nouns which denote neither males nor females are of the *neuter* gender ; as, *tree, rock, paper*.

REM. 1. — Some nouns may denote either males or females ; as, *parent, child, cousin*. These are sometimes said to be of the *common* gender ; but as the gender of such nouns may generally be determined by the connection, there seems to be no necessity for the distinction.

REM. 2. — By a figure of speech, called Personification, the masculine or feminine gender is applied to inanimate objects ; thus we say of a ship, "*She* sails well ;" of the sun, "*He* rises in the east." The use of this figure imparts peculiar beauty and animation to language. "*Her* flag streams wildly, and *her* fluttering sails pant to be on their flight." "The meek-eyed morn appears, *mother* of dews."

REM. 3. — In speaking of the inferior animals, and sometimes even of

ments, the distinction of sex is not observed; as, "And it became a *serpent*, and Moses fled from before it." "The *child* was lying in *its* cradle."

REM. 4. — Collective nouns, if they convey the idea of unity, or take the plural form, are *neuter*; as, "The army, on *its* approach, raised a shout of defiance." But if they convey the idea of plurality without the plural form, they take the gender of the individuals which compose the collection; as, "The jury could not agree upon *their* verdict."

There are three methods of distinguishing the sexes:—

(1.) By using the different words:—

EXAMPLES. *Bachelor, maid; beau, belle; boar, sow; boy, girl; brother, sister; buck, doe; bull, cow; cock, hen; drake, duck; earl, countess; father, mother; gander, goose; horse, mare; husband, wife; king, queen; lad, lass; lord, lady; male, female; man, woman; nephew, niece; ram, ewe; son, daughter; stag, hind; uncle, aunt; wizard, witch; dog, bitch; monk, nun; hart, roe; master, mistress; Mister, Mistress. (Mr., Mrs.); papa, mamma; sir, madam; sloven, slut; steer, heifer; youth, damsel; swain, nymph.*

REM. — Some masculine nouns have no corresponding feminines; as, *baker, brewer, porter, carrier*; while some feminine nouns have no corresponding masculine; as, *laundress, seamstress.*

(2.) By a difference of termination:—

EXAMPLES. *Abbot, abbess; actor, actress; administrator, administratrix; adulterer, adulteress; ambassador, ambassadress; author, authoress; baron, baroness; bridegroom, bride; benefactor, benefactress; count, countess; dauphin, dauphiness; deacon, deaconess; director, directress; duke, duchess; emperor, empress; executor, executrix; governor, governess; heir, heiress; hero, heroine; hunter, huntress; host, hostess; instructor, instructress; Jew, Jewess; landgrave, landgravine; lion, lioness; marquis, marchioness; monitor, monitress; patron, patroness; poet, poetess; priest, priestess; prince, princess; prophet, propheteess; shepherd, shepherdess; testator, testatrix; tiger, tigress; tutor, tutoress; widower, widow; god, goddess; giant, giantess; negro, negress; songster, songstress; sorcerer, sorceress.*

(3.) By prefixes and suffixes.

EXAMPLES. *Landlord, landlady; gentleman, gentlewoman; peacock, peahen; he-goat, she-goat; man-servant, maid-servant; male-child, female-child; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; grandfather, grandmother; Englishman, Englishwoman; merman, mermaid; schoolmaster, schoolmistress.*

EXERCISE.

Tell which of the following nouns are masculine, which feminine, and which neuter:—

Picture, walnut, duchess, philosopher, Spaniard, door, letter, cap, sailor, queen, priest, curtain, lioness, nun, captain, bridge, widow, hind, wizard, deacon, hospital, fort, banner, doe, brother, countess.

Give the feminine gender to the following nouns:—

Man, abbot, horse, hero, tiger, heir, prophet, Jew, male, lord, widower, hart, husband, beau, uncle, author, host, shepherd, poet, gander, sultan, hunter, master, drake, king, patron, bridegroom, stag, prince, peer, nephew.

Give the masculine gender of the following:—

Empress, songstress, ewe, mother, sister, marchioness, maid, actress, woman, she-goat, electress, witch, doe.

Fill the blanks in the following examples; the first five with common nouns in the masculine gender:—

_____ is patient. _____ loves his master. _____ reigns king of beasts. _____ exposes his wares for sale. _____ should venerate the old. The next five with proper or common nouns in the feminine gender: _____ was Queen of England. _____ entertained her guests with grace. _____ was a distinguished poetess. _____ was the nightingale of Sweden. _____ loves her offspring. The next five with collective nouns, and tell the gender: _____ met at the house of a friend. _____ brought in a verdict. _____ were appointed by the chair. _____ must obey its leaders. _____ listened with delight.

CASE.

ORAL EXERCISE.

Will you say or declare something of a pen? a dog? a horse? a bee? a tree? Thus, "The pen is poor."

Now, suppose, instead of saying something, you had done something to each of these; how would you speak of it? *Ans.* "I broke my pen." Is pen in the same relation or case as before? *Ans.* It is not. It was then the subject; it is now the object. (See Introduction, Proposition enlarged.) Now, when we use a noun in the relation of subject, it is in the *nominative case*; then in what case are these nouns? *George* writes. The clouds are black. The smoke ascends. The wind blows. When we use a noun in the relation of object after a verb or a preposition, it is in the *objective case*. In what case are these nouns? I saw a man. He broke the window. They walk in the garden. She sits on the sofa.

Suppose Henry owned a sled; how would you tell whose sled it was? *Ans.* Henry's sled. Henry is now in the relation of a possessor, and the word Henry's is said to be in the *possessive case*. Tell in what case the following words in Italics are: *John* came yesterday. I saw a hen. *Humphrey's* clock. The cat caught a mouse. *Herbert's* dog worried his brother's cat.

Will you mention the name of some object in this room? *Ans.* Chair. Now say something of the chair. "The chair stands on the floor."

CASE.

Case denotes the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words.

There are three cases—the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*.

The *nominative* case is the simplest form of the noun, and is commonly used as the subject of a proposition; as, "George speaks." "The door was shut."

Besides being the subject of a proposition, the *nominative* case may be used, 1st, as the attribute of a proposition; 2d, it may be used to identify the subject or attribute; 3d, it may be independent of any other word.

The *possessive* denotes the relation of property or possession ; as, "*David's* harp."

The possessive singular of nouns is regularly formed by adding an apostrophe (') and the letter *s* to the nominative ; as, *man's*, *David's*.

When the plural ends in *s*, the apostrophe only is added ; as, *boys'*, *ladies'*. But the (') and *s* are added when it ends in any other letter ; as, *men's*, *women's*, *brethren's*.

REM. 1. — When the singular ends in *s*, or a letter or combination of letters having the sound of *s*, and the addition of a syllable would be harsh, the (') only is added ; as, *goodness' sake*, *conscience' sake*, *Moses' seat*, *Cockatrice' den*.

REM. 2. — Some difference of opinion prevails among writers respecting the form of the possessive in other cases where the singular ends in *s*, some adding the (') only, and some the (') and *s*. Thus we have *Adams' express*, or, *Adams's express* ; *Otis' letters*, or *Otis's letters*. The weight of authority seems to be in favor of the additional *s*, whenever the laws of euphony will admit ; especially if a syllable is added in pronouncing the word ; as, *Bates's Sermons*.

When a noun follows a transitive verb or a preposition, it is in the *objective* case ; as, "Thomas opened his *knife*." "The bird sat on the *tree*."

REM. 1. — The *nominative* case answers the question *Who?* or *What?* as, "*Who* writes ?" "*John* writes." "*What* alarms him ?" "The *storm* alarms him." The *possessive* answers the question *Whose?* as, "*Whose* book have you ?" "I have my *brother's* book." The *objective* case answers the question *Whom?* or *What?* as, "*Whom* do you see ?" "I see the *captain*." "On *what* does he stand ?" "He stands upon the *deck*."

REM. 2. — The possessive case may be known by its form. But the forms of the nominative and the objective are alike ; hence they must be determined by their relation to other words.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

The *declension* of a noun is its variation to denote number and case.

EXAMPLES.

1. Boy.

	Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	Boy,	Boys,
Poss.	Boy's,	Boys',
Obj.	Boy ;	Boys.

2. FLY.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Fly,	Flies,
<i>Poss.</i>	Fly's,	Flies',
<i>Obj.</i>	Fly;	Flies.

3. JOHN.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	John,	<u>Wanting.</u>
<i>Poss.</i>	John's,	<u> </u>
<i>Obj.</i>	John;	<u> </u>

4. GOODNESS.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Goodness,	<u>Wanting.</u>
<i>Poss.</i>	Goodness',	<u> </u>
<i>Obj.</i>	Goodness;	<u> </u>

PARSING.

Parsing consists, —

- (1.) In telling the *part of speech*.
- (2.) In telling its *properties* or *accidents*.
- (3.) In pointing out its relation to other words, and giving the rule for its construction.*

In parsing a *noun*, say, —

- (1.) It is a *noun*, and tell why.
- (2.) It is *common* or *proper*, and tell why.
- (3.) It is of the 1st, 2d, or 3d *person*, and tell why.
- (4.) It is of the *singular* or *plural number*, and tell why.
- (5.) It is of the *masculine*, *feminine*, or *neuter gender*, and tell why.
- (6.) It is of the *nominative*, *possessive*, or *objective case*, and tell why.
- (7.) The rule* for construction.

EXERCISE.

The following nouns are in the *nominative case*. Parse them thus: —

"George writes."

George is a *noun*, it is the name of an object; *proper*, it is the name of an individual object; of the *third person*, it denotes the person spoken of; *singular number*, it denotes but one; *masculine gender*, it denotes a male; *nominative case*, it is used as the subject of the proposition "George writes." Rule I. "A noun or pro-

* The pupil who has been thoroughly drilled on the Introductory Course may be able to introduce this third element of parsing, if the teacher choose. The Rules of Syntax will, of course, be anticipated, if applied here. The teacher can omit of the rules, as he may think best.

noun used as the subject of a proposition must be in the nominative case."

Trees grow. Rain falls. The ice melts. The serpent crawls. Susan sings. The coal burns. The stars shine. Wisdom is profitable. Dogs bark. The cars arrive. Smoke ascends. Columbus sailed. Mary studies.

The following nouns are in the nominative case. Those in *Italics* are the predicate-nominative. Parse the latter thus:—

"Henry was a scholar."

Scholar . is a noun, (why?) common, (why?) third person, (why?) singular number, (why?) masculine gender, (why?) nominative case; (why?) it is used as the attribute of the proposition, "Henry is a scholar." Rule II. "A noun or pronoun used as the attribute of a proposition must be in the nominative case."

Peter was an *apostle*. Gold is a *metal*. Demosthenes was an *orator*. Horses are *animals*. Borneo is an *island*. Algebra is a *science*. Air is a *fluid*. Water is a *liquid*. The earth is a *globe*. The stars are *suns*. The moon is a *satellite*.

The following nouns are in the nominative. Those in *Italics* are in the nominative by apposition. Parse them thus:—

"The Emperor Nero was a tyrant."

Nero . . . is a noun, (why?) proper, (why?) third person, (why?) singular number, (why?) masculine gender, (why?) nominative case; it is used to identify or explain *Emperor*. Rule VI. (Repeat it.)

The psalmist *David* was a king. Paul the *apostle* was a martyr. The disciple *John* was beloved. Washington the *general* became Washington the *statesman*. Milton the *poet* was blind. Henry the *scholar* was crowned king.

The following nouns in *Italics* are in the nominative independent. Parse them thus:—

"James, bring me a book." "John, come."

James . . is a proper noun,* second person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case; it denotes the person addressed. Rule X.

The following nouns in *Italics* are in the possessive case, as may be seen by the sign ('s). Parse them thus:—

"The *pupil's* task is easy."

Pupil's . is a noun, (why?) common, (why?) third person, (why?) singular number, (why?) masculine or feminine gender; it denotes either a male or a female; possessive case; it denotes the relation of property or possession, and is used to limit task. Rule VII. "A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun or pronoun by denoting possession, must be in the possessive case."

The *boy's* hand was injured. The *king's* command was issued. The *rook's* nest was destroyed. The *bird's* beak was broken. The *serpent's* fang is poisonous. The *elephant's* tusk is white. *Rufus's* garden is watered. *Mary's* work is agreeable.

* It will be well at times to omit the definitions, and shorten the formulas for parsing.

The following nouns in Italics are in the objective case. Parse them thus:—

"We visited Washington, the capital, in the District of Columbia."

Washington is a proper noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, and *objective case*; it is used as the object of *visited*, according to Rule VIII. "A noun or pronoun used as the object of a transitive verb, or its participles, must be in the objective case."

Capital . . . is a noun, &c., in the *objective case*, and is used to identify or explain *Washington*, which is in the objective case Rule VI. (Repeat it.)

District . . . is a common noun, &c., in the *objective case*, and is used as the object of the preposition *in*, according to Rule XIV. "A noun or pronoun used as the object of a preposition, must be in the objective case."

Columbia . . is a proper noun, &c., object of *of*. Rule XIV.

Put the following nouns in Italics into the possessive case, and let each expression be written on your slates, thus:—

"The carpenter's axe. The carpenter's axe."

Abraham son. David harp. Moses law. Adams Arithmetic. Webster Dictionary. Peter coat. The teacher book lies upon the pupil desk. The coachman dog barked at the herdsman sheep. The lion roar aroused the shepherd dog. The farmer corn was destroyed by his neighbor cow.

Parse each possessive noun on your slates, and give the rule for forming the possessive case.

Write the following nouns in the possessive plural, and place some appropriate noun after them, thus:—

"The tailors' shears." "The men's apartment."

Tailor, seaman, captain, doctor, lawyer, judge, gardener, shoemaker, blacksmith, hunter, laborer, fireman, engineer, conductor, superintendent, director, president.

Tell the case of each noun in the following examples:—

John's hat lies on Peter's table. The pastor's visit consoled the mother's heart. The love of truth should be cultivated in childhood.

Correct the following examples and parse the nouns from your slate:—

The huntsman horn alarmed the shepherd dog. The pilot wife saw her husband boat. The jailer child approached the prisoner cell. We sat on the boatman oar.

Select ten objects capable of action, and assert some appropriate action of each. Then individualize (Introduction) or limit both the object and the action, observing the rules of criticism.

Correct the following sentences:—

*let me have my Slate. If you wil corect this sentence, i wil thank you;— every sentence should begin with a capital. john seperates a syllab-
e at the end of a line. if you rite this exercise without refering to the rule
for doubbling the final leter, you may misspel too words. o, i have made a
mistake in the use of capitals. Had'nt sarah ought to begin all proper
names with a capital. george reads wrights syfers spels and studys gog-
-nhy, but he does not put his commys where he'd ought to.*

ADJECTIVES.

ORAL EXERCISE.

When I say "birds," I may mean all the birds in the world. How can I speak so as to *limit* the number of birds to ten? *Ans.* By placing *ten* before the word *birds*; thus, *ten* birds. We limit the number by *adding* something to the word *birds*. What shall we call the word thus *added* to a noun? *Ans.* An *adjective*, (*added to*.) Which represents the greater number of horses, *horses* — or *white horses*? *Ans.* *Horses*. What word has thus diminished the number of horses? *Ans.* *White*. Does *white* show a *quality* as well as limit the number? *Ans.* It does. Which represents the greater number, *books* — or *five books*? *Ans.* *Books*. Does *five* show a quality of the books, as, *good*, *useful*, *bad*, at the same time that it limits the number? *Ans.* It does not; it limits without showing any quality. What is the difference, then, between *five* and *white*? *Five* limits without qualifying, and *white* limits by qualifying. What kind of adjectives are these in *Italics*? *Good* scholars, *bad* pens, *old* houses, *faithful* servants. *Ans.* They are adjectives expressing quality. What kind of adjectives are these? *Ten* stoves, the *first* class, *yonder* orchard, *this* hat, *every* day. *Ans.* They are adjectives which limit, but do not qualify. (See Introduction, "Objects Individualized.") Now study carefully the following definitions and mark the distinctions: —

An *adjective* is a word used to limit or qualify a noun; as, "a *good* school;" "a *diligent* boy;" "*this* table;" "*ten* men;" "*the* box."

REM. — All words which have the construction of the adjective are here considered under the head of adjectives. The article, like the adjective, belongs to the noun; it has the same construction as the adjective, and is hence placed among adjectives.

Every *adjective* is a dependent or subordinate word, and must belong to some noun or pronoun as its principal.

REM. 1. — When the noun or pronoun to which the adjective belongs has been previously used in the same sentence, or is some indefinite word, as, *person*, *some one*, or *some thing*, it may be omitted; as, "I will give you *this book*, if you will give me *that*." "The kingdom of heaven suffereth violence, and the *violent* [persons] take it by force."

REM. 2. — An adjective belonging to a noun understood, or omitted, takes the place of the latter, and is said to be an adjective used as a noun. (See model for parsing *that* and *violent*, p. 39.)

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives are divided into two classes — *limiting* and *qualifying*.

A *limiting* adjective is used to *define* or *restrict* the meaning of a noun, without expressing any of its qualities; as, "*the* house;" "*five* books;" "*this* pen."

Limiting adjectives are divided into three classes — *articles*, *pronominal adjectives*, and *numeral adjectives*.

ARTICLES.

The particular limiting adjectives, *the* and *a*, or *an* are called *articles*.

The is called the *definite*, because it points out some particular thing; as, "*the* desk;" "*the* sun."

A, or *an*, is called an *indefinite* article, because it does not point out any particular thing; as, "*a* pen;" "*an* orchard."

An is used before a vowel sound, and *a* before a consonant sound; as, "*an* apple;" "*a* pin;" "*an* hour;" "*a* union;" "*an* honor."

REM. — Although the article is intimately connected with the limitation of nouns, it is to be regarded rather as the *sign* of limitation than as itself a limiting word. When one says, "*The* man," *the* gives notice to the hearer that some particular *man* is regarded in the mind of the speaker. He will point out, by limiting or individualizing, who that particular *man* is. *A*, or *an*, again, is a *sign* that the speaker, in regarding a multitude of objects of the same kind, thinks of *one*, but no specific or particular one. The object may be limited to show what class or description of objects is meant, but not to show any particular individual. *A*, or *an*, however, may be said to limit whenever it prevents a noun from being used in its widest sense; as, *man* = the whole human race; *a* man = one man, but no particular one. *The*, again, may be said to extend the meaning of a noun in the singular, when it is used in such examples as these: "*The* horse" = "all horses." "*The* dog," &c.

EXERCISE.

Point out the articles in the following examples; tell which are definite and which are indefinite: —

The hat, a book, a knife, a box, an heir, an ox, a plough, an orchard, an industrious man, an honest man, a good citizen, a hill, a huge round stone, the enemy, the union, the ewe.

Correct the following examples in all respects; write them on your slates: —

I have got an hat. We have an horse. We saw many an one. We went a snowballing. I dun it this mornin'. I saw any quantity of slays. I seen him do it. I board an hole with my uncles gimblet.*

* SUGGESTION TO THE TEACHER. — It is the design of these examples, interspersed among others, to keep alive the spirit of criticism, and to root out by practical exercises those incorrect expressions which children have imbibed from early associations. Many of them may be corrected by principles already acquired. Others will anticipate the rules yet to be given. And others, still, can never be reached by the rules of grammar; they must be corrected by the laws of good usage. (See Rem. page 1.) What rule of grammar will correct such an expression as "*I disremember what he said?*" Cannot every word be parsed? Does grammar correct this? "*I propose* (purpose) to visit my friends." Every improvement in the expressions of the learner is a decided gain, whether it be made by rule, or by observing the custom of good speakers or good writers. Correct all faulty expressions by the rules of grammar, if possible, but at all events correct them.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

Those *limiting* adjectives which may, without the use of the article, represent a noun when understood, are called *pronominal adjectives*; as, "*That* (book) is his; *this* is yours."

The *principal* pronominal adjectives are, *this, that, these, those, former, latter, which, what, each, every, either, neither, some, one, none, any, all, such, much, both, few, fewer, fewest, first, last, little, less, least, many, more, most, own, same, several, sundry, enough.*

REM. 1. — When such adjectives represent a noun understood, they are generally called *pronouns*. They may more properly be called *limiting adjectives*, (*pronominal adjectives*;) used as nouns; as, "*This* is my book." The articles never represent a noun understood.

REM. 2. — Qualifying adjectives may also represent a noun when understood, but the article must be prefixed; as, "*The good* are happy."

REM. 3. — *All* is sometimes a noun; as, "He robbed me of my house, my goods, my home, my *all*." *Both* is frequently a conjunction; as, "I *both* saw and heard him."

REM. 4. — *Each, every, either, neither*, are used *distributively*. *This* and *that*, with their plurals, *these* and *those*, are used *demonstratively*. *None, any, all, such, whole, some, both, one, other, another*, are used *indefinitely*.

REM. 5. — *These, those, all, many, both, few, fewer, fewest, several, sundry*, usually require a noun in the plural; as, "*These days*." "*Those plants*."

REM. 6. — *One* and *other* are declined thus:—

	Sing.	Plu.		Sing.	Plu.
Nom.	One,	Ones,	Nom.	Other,	Others,
Poss.	One's,	Ones',	Poss.	Other's,	Others'
Obj.	One;	Ones.	Obj.	Other;	Others.

EXERCISES.

Point out the pronominal adjectives in the following sentences:—

This rule is preferable to that. These scholars are more studious than those. The former plan has yielded to the latter. Each exercise was well written. Every accused one was acquitted. The first method is better than the last. Many of our hopes are blasted. Few men are of the same mind. Much remains to be said upon all these points. Our own wishes must often be yielded to those of others. More were present than were expected. Little hope was entertained of his recovery. Neither remark was just. The same course was pursued by several of the members. Much harm arises from imprudence. I am less than the least of all saints

Correct the following in all respects:—

Those sort of cherries aint good, these exersices is not corect in some

aspect. the Times is very hard. our dutys must Be performed. Sever pupils come in late yesterday. None has came. H'aint you seen them men? he said he hadnt none. James thinks thats right. but others dozent.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

Numeral adjectives are those which express number, as, *one, two, three, first, second, &c.*

Numeral adjectives are divided into, *Cardinal*, which denote *how many*; as, *one, two, three, &c.*; *Ordinal*, which show *which one of a series*; as, *first, second, third.*

EXERCISE.

Apply cardinal numbers to the following nouns; change them to the plural, if necessary:—

Peach, berry, box, cup, match, cork, shoe, glove, pencil, wafer, penny, mouse, goose, woman, court-martial, tooth, brother-in-law, handful, stratum, index, stamen, cherub, phenomenon.

Correct the following plurals, and apply to each any numeral greater than one or first:—

Oxes, calfs, sheeps, deers, geeses, 9s, 7s, fs, cherubims, serapnims, wines, vallies, loafes, chimnies, journies, studys, commander-in-chiefs, sros, solos, grottoes, ladys.

Collect all the erroneous expressions which you have noticed to-day, and correct them. Be careful to avoid them yourself.

QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES.

A *qualifying* adjective is one which limits the meaning of a noun, by denoting some *property* or *quality*; as, “a *virtuous* man;” “a *running* horse.” To this class of adjectives belong the participles, which have the *signification* of the verb and the *construction* of the adjective.

REM. 1. — When the participle is placed before the noun which it modifies, it is called a *participial adjective*; as, “The *rising* sun.” When it is placed after the noun, and is itself limited by other words, it is parsed as a participle; as, “The sun *rising* in the east.”

REM. 2. — When a qualifying adjective represents an object understood, either definite or indefinite, the article *the* must be placed before it; as, “The wise [persons;] the benevolent [ones;] the beautiful, the good, and the true.” When the quality is used abstractly, the adjective undergoes a change in its termination; as, Wise, *wisdom*; beautiful, *beauty*.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

When different objects are compared with each other, the adjective expressing the quality by means of which they are compared undergoes a change, called *comparison*.

There are three degrees of comparison — the *positive*, *comparative*, and *superlative*.

The *positive* simply denotes a quality; as, *righteous*, *pleasant*.

The *comparative* shows that one of two objects possesses a quality in a higher degree than the other; as, "This tree is *taller* than that."

The *superlative* shows that one of several objects possesses a quality in the highest degree, when compared with all the rest; as, "That pine is the *tallest* tree in the grove."

FORMATION OF THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE.

The comparative of monosyllables is regularly formed by adding *r* or *er*, and the superlative by adding *st* or *est*, to the positive; as, *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*; *bold*, *bolder*, *boldest*.

The comparative of most adjectives of more than one syllable is formed by prefixing *more* or *less*, and the superlative by prefixing *most* or *least*, to the positive; as, *industrious*, *more industrious*, *most industrious*.

The following adjectives are compared irregularly: *Good*, *better*, *best*; *bad*, *worse*, *worst*; *ill*, *worse*, *worst*; *little*, *less* or *lesser*, *least*; *much*, *more*, *most*; *many*, *more*, *most*; *far*, *farther*, *farthest*; *near*, *nearer*, *nearest* or *next*; *late*, *later*, *latest* or *last*; *old*, *older*, or *elder*, *oldest* or *eldest*.

REM. 1. — Adjectives terminating in *ish* indicate the possession of a quality in a lower degree than the positive; as, *bluish*, approaching in color to *blue*.

REM. 2. — The meaning of the positive is also varied by the addition of such adverbs as *somewhat*, *rather*, *slightly*, *a little*, *too*, *very*, *greatly*, *exceedingly*, &c.; that of the comparative and superlative by such words as *much*, *far*, *vastly*, *altogether*, *by far*, &c.

REM. 3. — Several adjectives in the superlative degree are formed by adding *most* to *up*, *upper*, *nether*, *in*, *inner*, *hind*, *hinder*, *out*, (contracted to *ut*,) *outer*, *further*, *hither*, *top*, *bottom*; as, *upmost*, *uppermost*, *inmost*.

REM. 4. — Adjectives derived from proper names, numerals, pronominal adjectives, and such as refer to position, material and form, are seldom, if ever, compared.

EXERCISES.

Tell which of the following words are adjectives :—

Ice, cold, soft, water, this, little, chair, knob, arise, brave, diligent, in, stand, lamp, many, former, light, white, match, rough.

Tell which of the following adjectives are limiting, and which are qualifying :—

Strong, twenty, faithful, green, this, first, are, old, former, yellow, every such, wonderful, timid, sweet, any, fifth, the, soft, those, pure, ripe, tough, other, thirty, odious.

Tell which of the following adjectives are of the positive, which of the comparative, and which of the superlative degree :—

Braver, young, more, acceptable, eldest, less, useful, worst, better, most honorable, strongest, saddest, more plentiful, least worthy, last, good, thrifty, considerate, tallest.

Compare the following adjectives :—

Bright, active, handsome, wise, sad, able, just, diligent, beautiful, good, excellent, dutiful, little, serene, fruitful, large, obedient, warm, studious, affable, dexterous, gloomy, industrious, honorable, hot, ample, hard, worthy.

Apply limiting adjectives to ten common nouns.

Apply qualifying adjectives to ten common nouns, of the masculine gender, and in the plural number.

Apply qualifying adjectives, in the comparative degree, to ten common nouns in the feminine gender.

Apply qualifying adjectives, in the superlative degree, to ten nouns in the neuter gender.

Fill the blanks in the following examples :—

_____ men are respected. Intemperance is _____ vice. Gold is _____ of metals. The sun is _____ than the earth. Asia is _____ grand division. The plague is the _____ fatal of diseases. The Pacific is _____ than the Atlantic. _____ men sit at their doors. The _____ south wind breathes gently forth. _____ events cast their shadows before. The Alps are _____, the Andes are _____, but the Himalaya are _____ of all _____ men never lived. _____ men never fought.

Study the following models for parsing, and then parse any of the above examples :—

In parsing an adjective, —

(1.) Tell what part of speech it is. Why?

(2.) Tell what kind of adjective. Why?

(3.) Compare it, and give the degree, (if a qualifying adjective.)

(4.) Tell to what noun it belongs.

(5.) Give the rule.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

"The faithful man will be rewarded."

Faithful is an adjective ; it is used to limit or quantify a noun . *qualifying*

t denotes quality; it is *compared*; positive *faithful*, comparative *more faithful*, superlative *most faithful*; it is in the *positive* degree, and belongs to *man*, according to Rule V. (Repeat it.)

"Her house is *larger* than mine."

Larger is an *adjective*; it is used to limit or qualify a noun; *qualifying*, it denotes quality, it is *compared*; positive *large*, comparative *larger*, superlative *largest*; it is in the *comparative* degree; it shows a higher degree of the quality than the positive does, and belongs to *house*, according to Rule V. (Repeat it.)

"She is worthy of the *highest* praise."

Highest is an *adjective*; it is used to limit or qualify a noun, *qualifying*; it denotes quality; it is *compared*: positive *high*, comparative *higher*, superlative *highest*; it is in the *superlative* degree; it shows the highest degree of the quality, and belongs to *praise*, according to Rule V. (Repeat it.)

"The rose is a beautiful flower."

The . . . is an *adjective*; (definite article;) it is used to limit or qualify a noun; *limiting*; it limits without denoting quality; it belongs to *rose*, according to Rule V. (Repeat it.)

"A tree has fallen."

A is an *adjective*, (indefinite article;) it is used to limit or qualify a noun; *limiting*; it limits without denoting quality; it belongs to *tree*, according to Rule V. (Repeat it.)

"Three birds were killed."

Three . . is an *adjective*; it is used to limit or qualify a noun; *limiting*, (numeral;) it limits without denoting quality; it belongs to *birds* according to Rule V. (Repeat it.)

"Give me this apple, and I will give you *that*."

That . . . is an *adjective*; it is used to limit the noun *apple*, understood or it is used as a noun, in the *third person*, *singular number*, and *objective case*, and is the object of the verb *give*, according to Rule VIII.

"The kingdom of heaven suffereth violence, and *the violent* take it by force."

Violent . is an *adjective*; it belongs to *persons*, understood; or it is used as a noun, of the *third person*, *plural number*, *nominative case*, and is the subject of the proposition, the violent *take*, according to Rule I. (Repeat it.)

PRONOUNS.

ORAL EXERCISE.

"David gave David's book to Ellen; and Ellen gave David's book to Ellen's father; and Ellen's father thanked Ellen that Ellen had given David's book to Ellen's father." What word is repeated in the first part of this sentence? *Ans. David's.* What word can you find in the second part of this sentence? *Ans. Ellen's.*

Ans. His. Repeat the expression, and substitute *his* in place of *David's*. Will you give the second part so as to avoid repetition? *Ans. And she gave it to her father.* What does *she* take the place of? *Ans. Ellen.* What does *it* take the place of? *Ans. David's book.* What does *her* take the place of? *Ans. Ellen's.* How can you better express the third part? *Ans. By saying, And he thanked her, that she had given it to him.* Tell what each of these little words stands for. Tell what words are displaced, and what part of speech they are. Now, since each new word stands for a noun, we need some word which shall mean *for noun*. What word can you give? *Ans. Pronoun.* Then *he, his, him, she, her,* and *it* are pronouns. If a boy by the name of Charles should say, meaning himself, "Charles is studying arithmetic," what change must he make to show that he means himself? *Ans. He must use I instead of his own name.* *I am studying arithmetic.* What part of speech is *I*? What person is it? Why? If you were to say, Charles is studying arithmetic, what change must you make to show that you spoke these words to Charles? *Ans. You are studying arithmetic.* Then, what part of speech is *you*? What person? Why? Of what person is *he*? *she*? *it*? *he*? *him*? *his*?

A pronoun is a word which takes the place of a noun; as, "The farmer ploughs *his* field; *he* reaps *his* wheat, and gathers it into *his* barn."

REM. 1. — The pronoun is used instead of the noun, —

(1.) When the object referred to is both *known*, and has been *previously mentioned*; as, "David came to *his* house in Jerusalem." "Here is the pencil for *which* I was looking."

(2.) When the object referred to is *known*, but not (necessarily) *previously mentioned*; as, "*I* have the memorial which you gave *me*."

(3.) When the object referred to is neither *known* nor has been *previously mentioned*; as, "*Who* comes yonder?"

REM. 2. — The personal pronouns are used to represent some relation to the speaker. Those of the first and second persons can scarcely be said to represent the *name* of the speaker, or of the hearer at all, since they may be used when the name is unknown. They are employed to show a *relation* rather than a name. Those of the third person represent as well the *name* of some person or thing as its relation to the speaker. They enable us to avoid repeating it; they also show its relation in regard to sex, (gender,) and its syntactic relation, (case.)

REM. 3. — The noun for which a pronoun stands is called the *antecedent*; as, "The *world*, in *which* they are placed, opens with all its wonders upon their eyes." The antecedent may be a phrase or an entire proposition; as, "*To believe the report, which* is the thing you desire, would be offensive to one of the noblest of men." "*The servant opened the window, which* was strictly forbidden."

REM. 4. — The antecedent of the personal pronouns of the first and second persons is always supposed to be present, and consequently seldom named; that of the third person is usually expressed. Sometimes, however, a personal or an interrogative pronoun is employed without an antecedent, and so limited by a relative and its clause, as to give to the whole the effect of a single name; as, "*He who sways the minds of men by his eloquence,*" i. e., the orator, "exerts the highest human power." "*Who, that marks the fire still sparkling in each eye,* but would deem their bosoms burned anew?" Sometimes the antecedent pronoun, in such cases, is omitted, or included in the relative; as, "*Who* would be free, themselves must strike the blow" "*Who* steals my purse steals trash."

REM. 5. — The pronoun stands not merely for a noun, but for a noun as restricted by modifying words ; as, " We saw the little deformed boy *who* watched at the gate, and pitied *him*," i. e., *the little deformed boy who watched at the gate.*

REM. 6. — The antecedent, as the term indicates, is something *going before* ; but as an interrogative pronoun inquires for an object as yet unknown, the name of it cannot be used before the pronoun, but must follow it. It might then more properly be called the *subsequent* ; as, "*What* have you brought?" "The *cloak*."

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

Pronouns are divided into three classes — *personal*, *relative*, and *interrogative*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

A *personal* pronoun is used both to represent a noun, and to show whether it is of the *first*, *second*, or *third* person.

I (plural *we*) is of the *first* person ; *thou* (plural *ye* or *you*) is of the *second* person ; *he*, *she*, and *it* (plural *they*) are of the *third* person, masculine, feminine, and neuter, respectively.

The compound personal pronouns are, *first* person, *my* self, (plural *ourselves* ;) *second* person, *thyself*, (plural *yourselves* ;) *third* person, (*masculine*) *himself*, (*feminine*) *herself*, (*neuter*) *itself*, (plural *themselves*.)

To pronouns, like the nouns for which they stand, belong *Person*, *Number*, *Gender*, and *Case*.

REM. 1. — The personal pronouns of the *first* and *second* person represent the speaker or the hearer. The gender is supposed to be known, and is not indicated by the form of the pronoun, while that of the *third* person is represented by one of the forms, *he*, *she*, or *it*.

REM. 2. — *It* is often used in a vague sense, as the subject of verbs descriptive of the weather ; as, "It rains." "It thunders." It is used as an expletive, (1.) as the object of a verb ; as, "Come and trip *it* as you go ;" (2.) to introduce a sentence whose subject is placed after the predicate. "*It* is pleasant to see the sun." "*It* has been ascertained, *that* water is composed of oxygen and hydrogen." It is used as subject to represent a noun or pronoun as attribute, of any number, gender, or person ; as, "*It* is I." "*It* is they." "*It* is James." "*It* is she."

REM. 3. — The compound personal pronouns are seldom, if ever, used as the subject of a proposition, though they may be used in apposition with it ; as, "*He himself* knows not whereof he affirms. When used as the object of a transitive verb, they are called *reflexive*, because the act

of the agent falls back upon himself; as, "The boy struck *himself*." *Each other* and *one another* in the same relation are sometimes called *reciprocal pronouns*; as, "The boys struck *each other*."

REM. 4. — Formerly *thou* was used in addressing a single individual, and a corresponding form of the verb was used; as, "Thou singest;" but gradually *you* has come to take its place, till the use of *thou*, except in the solemn style, is now wholly discontinued. *You*, therefore, is both singular and plural in its application, but the verb does not change its form; it invariably takes the plural form; as, "You (meaning one) *write*," not *writest*.*

EXERCISE.

Count the words in the following sentences; then substitute personal pronouns, and see how many words you gain thereby: —

The savages of North America spent the time of the savages of North America in hunting, and the wives of the savages of North America spent the time of the wives of the savages of North America in preparing food for the husbands of the wives of the savages of North America.

Substitute the nouns and their modifying words for the pronouns in the following sentences: —

At this time, the commander of the American forces and his army took post at Harlem; he now sought to ascertain the state of his enemy's forces on Long Island. Captain Nathan Hale volunteered his services; he entered the British army in disguise. On his return, he was apprehended and sent to the cruel Marshal Cunningham, by whom he was ordered to execution without a trial.

Alter the following sentences so as to make the subjects represent, first the speaker, then the hearer: —

John wrote a letter. Jacob loved Joseph. Paul preached at Athens. He came to the rescue. They sailed at noon. The king was sick. Susan leaves her studies. The horse ran away. Washington loved the truth.

Name the pronouns in the following, and tell what words they stand for: —

Jacob loved his son Joseph, and gave him a coat of many colors. Peter denied his Master; he afterwards went and wept bitterly. Let him that thinketh he standeth take heed lest he fall. A man's heart deviseth his way; but the Lord directeth his steps.

Collect all the erroneous expressions which you hear to-day, write them down, correct them, and be careful not to use them yourself.

DECLENSION OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The personal pronouns are thus declined: —

FIRST PERSON.

	Sing.	Plu.
Nom.	I,	We,
Poss.	My or mine,	Our or ours,
Obj.	Me;	Us.

* The Friends or Quakers still use *thou*, more commonly *thee*, in common conversation

SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Pla.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Thou,	Ye or you,
<i>Poss.</i>	Thy or thine,	Your or yours,
<i>Obj.</i>	Thee;	You.

THIRD PERSON. *Masculine.*

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Pla.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	He,	They,
<i>Poss.</i>	His,	Their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i>	Him;	Them.

THIRD PERSON. *Feminine.*

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Pla.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	She,	They,
<i>Poss.</i>	Her or hers,	Their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i>	Her;	Them.

THIRD PERSON. *Neuter.*

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Pla.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	It,	They,
<i>Poss.</i>	Its,	Their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i>	It;	Them.

FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Pla.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Myself,	Ourselves,
<i>Poss.</i>	<u>Myself;</u>	<u>Ourselves</u>
<i>Obj.</i>	Myself;	Ourselves

SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Pla.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Thyself,	Yourselves,
<i>Poss.</i>	<u>Thyself;</u>	<u>Yourselves.</u>
<i>Obj.</i>	Thyself;	Yourselves.

THIRD PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Pla.</i>
	<i>Mas.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Himself,	Herself,	Itself,
<i>Poss.</i>	<u>Himself;</u>	<u>Herself;</u>	<u>Itself;</u>
<i>Obj.</i>	Himself;	Herself;	Itself;
			Themselves.

REM. 1. — Of the possessives, *my, thy, her, our, your, their*, are used when the noun is expressed; *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours*, and *theirs*, when it is understood, and the latter must be changed to the former whenever the noun is supplied. "That book is *yours*; this is *mine*." "The book is *your* book; this is *my* book."

REM. 2. — When *mine, thine, &c.*, are used as in the above example, they seem to perform a double office; first, to represent the speaker, hearer, or person spoken of, as a possessor; and, secondly, like other limiting or qualifying words, when the noun is understood, to represent or stand for

that noun, not as a pronoun does, but as an adjective. Thus we say "*This* [book] is an arithmetic; *that* [book] is a geography." "*The violent* [persons] take it by force." "*Mine* [my task] was an easy task." Properly, neither of the above words is a noun. The first three are adjectives used to limit the noun understood, which follows them, and the last a personal pronoun in the possessive case, used to limit the noun *task*, understood. If it is ever proper to say that *this*, *that*, or *violent* are used as nouns, it is equally so of the word *mine*, not in its pronominal, but in its adjective office.

EXERCISE.

PARSING.

In parsing a pronoun, —

- (1.) Tell what part of speech it is. Why?
- (2.) Tell what kind of pronoun. Why?
- (3.) Tell what its antecedent is.
- (4.) Decline it.
- (5.) Give the person, number, gender. Why?
- (6.) Rule for person, number, gender. Why?
- (7.) Case and construction.
- (8.) Rule for construction.

NOTE. — In parsing, let the pupil follow this order, and as soon as possible, without any question from the teacher. The pronoun is parsed very much like the noun.

Study the following models for parsing: —

"David brought *his* book, and laid *it* on the table."

His . is a *pronoun*; it takes the place of a noun; *personal*; it is used both to represent a noun, and to show whether it is of the first, second, or third person; it refers to *David's* for its antecedent; (singular, nominative *he*, possessive *his*, objective *him*; plural, nominative *they*, possessive *their* or *theirs*, objective *them*;) it is of the *third person*, *singular number*, *masculine gender*, because its antecedent is (Rule III. "A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in *gender*, *number*, and *person*;") *possessive case*, and is used to limit *book*, by denoting possession, according to Rule VII. (Repeat it.)

It . . is a *pronoun*, (why?) *personal*, (why?) it has *book* for its antecedent; decline it; is of the *third person*, *singular number*, *neuter gender*, because its antecedent *book* is, (Rule III.,) and *objective case*. Rule VIII. (Repeat the rule.)

"The messenger *himself* revealed the treachery."

Himself . is a *pronoun*, (why?) *compound*, composed of *him* and *self*; it has *messenger* for its antecedent; *third person*, *singular number*, *masculine gender*, because its antecedent is, (Rule III.,) *nominative case*, and used to identify or explain *messenger*, according to Rule VI.

Parse the personal pronouns in the following sentences: —

Joseph knew his brethren, but they knew not him. Jane dropped her fan. and her brother gave it to her again. We cannot see the stars when the light of the sun overpowers them. Thou shalt see me hereafter. I know you will receive the child and love it. Our house is at your service

Do thyself no harm. The king found himself in great distress. We must keep ourselves from temptation. I myself will do it.

Write five sentences, use personal pronouns in each, and then parse them

Give the class, person, number, gender, (when it can be determined by the form,) and case of the following pronouns :—

I, he, his, hers, mine, you, thou, they, them, us, we, myself, himself, they, herself, me, themselves, ourselves, my, thee, your, thine, herself, yourselves.

Rewrite and correct the following sentences in every particular :—

The carpenter broke the angur hisself. When i went to school, me and my sister sarah were learned how to use capitals. the master taught us how to speak correctly, and the scholars, writ down meny lessons their-selves. we always had good times a-criticizing what the other scholars had wrote. It was me, that disremembered the rules for changing the y in *duys* and *gloryfying*, and f in *sheafs*, *wifes*, *loafs*. fust, i reckoned i knowed 'em, but it 'pears i didn't. Them words that I have here koted, "marys gownd" from marthas slate haint got no capital letter, and she don't mind the rule for the 'sessive case. nathan haint doted his eyes, nor crossed his teas, and his lines run down hill. Samuel offerred to 'sist me in my 'rethmetic if i would learn them rules for spellin'.

Collect all the faulty expressions which you hear to-day, and correct them.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

A *relative* pronoun is used to represent a preceding noun or pronoun, called the *antecedent* ; as, "Those *who* wish for favors must assist others."

REM. 1. — The relative, when used only as a pronoun, follows the antecedent ; when used both as a limiting adjective and a pronoun, it always precedes it ; as, "I will give you *what* money I have."

REM. 2. — The following distinctions will show the difference between a relative and a personal pronoun :—

(1.) The relative refers to an object always known, and either previously mentioned, or so clearly implied as to need no mention ; the personal pronouns refer always to an object known, and in the third person, to an object previously mentioned, but in the first and second persons, to an object not previously mentioned.

(2.) The personal pronouns have a distinct form for each grammatical person ; *I* for the first, *thou* or *you* for the second, and *he*, *she*, or *it* for the third. The relative pronouns do not change their form to represent person.

(3.) The essential difference is seen in their use in construction. The personal pronoun may represent the subject of an independent sentence ; the relative never ; as, "He is present." "Which is important." The first is a complete sentence ; the second needs some word, as *measure*, (which is important,) on which it may depend.

REM. 3. — The relative serves two purposes : one, as a pronoun to represent a noun in any relation ; the other, as a connective joining the relative clause to the antecedent. In this use it may be considered as a kind of auxiliary, employed to convert an independent proposition into a dependent

one, and to adapt it, as an adjective, to modify some antecedent noun; as for example, in speaking of a *cloud*, if we say, "It is dark," the expression is an independent sentence; but if we say, "which is dark," the expression is still a proposition, but not a sentence; it is now, by the aid of *which*, fitted to limit the noun *cloud*; thus, "The *CLOUD* which is dark."

SIMPLE RELATIVES.

The *simple* relatives are, *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*.

Who is used to represent *persons*; *which* and *what*, to represent *things*; and *that*, to represent both *persons* and *things*.

REM. 1. — The antecedent is the word for which the pronoun stands; it is that on which the relative clause depends, and is either a *definite* or an *indefinite* object.

REM. 2. — *Who*, *which*, and *that* usually refer to a definite antecedent; as, "The *man* who came." "The *horse* which died." "The *tree* that fell." In the sentence, "Who steals my purse steals trash," *who* refers to an indefinite antecedent. *What* may refer either to a definite or an indefinite antecedent; as, "I gave him *what* money he wanted," (definite.) "I gave him *what* [things] he wanted," (indefinite.) When the antecedent is indefinite, the relative stands alone.

REM. 3. — *What*, in addition to the other functions of a relative, performs that of a limiting adjective, and is, hence, placed before the noun which it limits, and which, as a pronoun, it also represents; as, "He had *what* furniture was left" = He had *that* furniture *which* was left. When the noun to which, as an adjective, it belongs, is indefinite, and therefore not expressed, *what* takes its place, and is an adjective used as a noun, (see Adjective used as a noun, p. 33,) and may be parsed, first, as the indefinite antecedent, and, secondly, as a relative.

REM. 4. — The word *that* is a relative only when *who* or *which* can be substituted for it; as, "He *that* (*who*) getteth wisdom loveth his own soul." "What private grief they have, alas! I know not, *that* (*which*) made them do it." It is a pronominal adjective when immediately followed by a noun expressed or understood; as, "That book." It is a subordinate conjunction when it joins a dependent clause to some part of a principal; as, "I know *that* my Redeemer liveth."

REM. 5. — *What* is a relative, (1.) when it can be changed into *that* *which*; as, "It is *what* (*that* *which*) I wanted;" (2.) when it both limits and relates to a noun; as, "What ore was found, was very poor" = *That* ore *which* was found, &c. It is an interrogative pronoun, when used alone (belonging to an indefinite object) to ask a question; as, "*What* [things] do you want?" It is an interrogative adjective when used to limit a noun, (a definite object,) and also to ask a question; as, "*What* excuse does he render?" It is an interjection when it denotes an exclamation; as, "*What*! have you come?"

REM. 6. — When *that* is used as the object of a preposition, the latter is always placed at the end of the clause; and *that* must be changed to *whom* or *which* whenever the preposition precedes; as, "I was James *that* I depended upon" = upon whom I depended.

REM. 7. — By an ellipsis of the relative, *as*, after *such*, *many*, and *some* seems to take its place, and may be regarded as a relative, though properly speaking, it is never a relative; as, "The Lord added to *the* *cloud* daily, *such* *as* [were those who] should be saved."

COMPOUND RELATIVES.

The *compound* relatives are *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichever*, *whatsoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*.

REM. 1. — These are formed from the simple relatives by adding the adverbs *ever* and *soever*.

REM. 2. — *Whoever* and *whosoever* refer to some indefinite antecedent, as *he*, the *person*, *any one*, and are equivalent to *any one who*; as, "Whoever hopes a faultless piece to see." *Whichever* and *whichever* refer to a definite object, to which they belong as adjectives; as, "Whichever way you take will lead to the city." They are equivalent to *any — which*. *Whatever* and *whatsoever* belong, as adjectives, either to a definite or an indefinite object, and relate, as pronouns, to the same, (see Rem. 3, above;) as, "We are interested in *whatever* occupation you follow." "*Whatsoever* is more than these cometh of evil." They are equivalent to *that — which*, or *any thing — which*.

DECLENSION OF RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

	Sing. & Plu.	Sing. & Plu.
Nom.	Who,	Which,
Poss.	Whose,	Whose,
Obj.	Whom;	Which.

That and *what* have no variation.

EXERCISE.

Learn the following models for parsing:—

"The man *who* is faithfully attached to religion, may be relied on with confidence."

Who is a *pronoun*, (why?) *relative*, (why?) it has *man* for its antecedent; nominative *who*, possessive *whose*, objective *whom*; plural, the same; *third person*, *singular number*, *masculine gender*, because its antecedent is, (Rule III. Repeat it,) *nominative case*, and used as the subject of the proposition, "who is attached." Rule I. (Repeat it.)

"Cherish true patriotism, *whose* root is benevolence."

Whose is a *relative pronoun*; it has *patriotism* for its antecedent; nominative *who*, &c.; *third person*, *singular number*, *neuter gender*, (Rule III. Repeat it,) *possessive case*, and is used to limit *root* by denoting possession. Rule VII. (Repeat it.)

"Compassion is an emotion of *which* we should never be ashamed."

Which is a *relative pronoun*, (antecedent, decline, person, number, gender, Rule III.,) *objective case*, and used as the object of the preposition *of*. Rule XIII.

"Here is the sofa *that* he sat upon."

That is a *relative pronoun*, (antecedent, decline, person, number, gender, Rule III.,) *objective case*, and used as the object of the preposition *upon*. (See Rem. 6, p. 46.)

"I have ascertained *what* lesson we must learn."

What is a *pronoun*, used both as an adjective and a pronoun; as an adjective it belongs to *lesson*, according to Rule V.; (repeat it;) as a pronoun, it is a relative, and relates to *lesson* for its antecedent; *third person, singular number, neuter gender*, Rule III., *objective case*, and is used as the object of the verb *must learn*, according to Rule VIII. (Repeat it.)

"I have ascertained *what* we must learn."

What is a *pronoun*, used both as an adjective and a pronoun; as an adjective it belongs to some noun (*thing*) understood, and hence may be taken as a noun, (see model for parsing *that*, p. 39;) indeclinable, *third person, singular number, neuter gender, objective case*, and is used as the object of *have ascertained*. Rule VIII. As a pronoun, it is a relative, relating to some indefinite antecedent (*thing*) understood, (see Rem. 3, p. 46,) or to *what*, representing *thing*, and regarded as the antecedent, indeclinable, *third person, singular number, neuter gender, objective case*, and used as the object of *must learn*. Rule VIII.

"We will furnish him with *whatever* clothing he may need."

Whatever is a *compound relative*, composed of *what* and *ever*. (Imitate the first model for *what*.)

"We provide *whatever* may be needed."

Whatever is a *compound relative*. (Imitate the second model for *what*.)

Point out and parse the relative pronouns in the following sentences :—

The child who is obedient will be beloved. The bird that built her nest on the tree was killed. The apples which you gave me are sour. The man whom you saw was my brother. The boat in which we sailed has been sold. The grass that was mowed by the farmer, was soon withered. The gentleman whose kindness we experienced, was a teacher. He that is slow to wrath, is of great understanding.

Point out the antecedents in the examples above.

Point out and parse the compound relatives in the following examples :—

Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them. Whatever is, is right. Whatsoever he saith unto you, do it. Whoever seeks the good of others, will himself be blest. Darkness besets me, which ever way I turn.

Correct the following examples :—

The cow whom my father bought, has strayed away. The boy which sets on the seat yender hasn't got his sums did. The sun lays into our south winder beautiful. This is the man who we sent for. The boy who I see at school yesterday was e'en-a'-most as tall agin as i be. This 'ere task of 'ritin' sentences is putty hard for one that don't know no more of the grammar book than i does. howsomever i never gives up for trifles

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

The *interrogative* pronouns are used in asking questions. They are *who*, used to inquire for persons; *what* and *which*,

for things, as, “*Who* gave thee that authority?” “*Which* house does he live in?” “*What* have I to do with thee?”

REM. 1. — When a *definite* object is inquired for, *what* and *which* are adjectives used to limit the objects inquired for; as, “*What* books do you want?” “*Which* road shall we take?” When an *indefinite* object is inquired for, the interrogative takes its place, or belongs to it, understood; as, “*What* (thing) do you want?”

REM. 2. — When an interrogative sentence is quoted, and incorporated into another sentence, it loses much of its interrogative character; the interrogative pronoun becomes a connective, and as the incorporated clause is an unanswered question, the pronoun refers to some person or thing both *unknown* and *unmentioned*. It may therefore be called an *indefinite interrogative pronoun*. EXAMPLE: “*Who* is concealed in the garden?” The name has not been mentioned, and although he may be a familiar friend, yet as the *concealed one*, he is unknown. The answer, therefore, must be, “I do not know *who* is concealed in the garden.” Compare this with, “I do not know *him who* is concealed in the garden.” Here *who* is a relative pronoun having *him* for its antecedent.

REM. 3. — Besides *pronouns*, various interrogative adverbs are used in asking questions; as, *Why? Where? When? How?*

EXERCISE.

Point out the interrogative pronouns in the following examples: —

Who has learned his lesson? Which seat do you prefer? What have you found in the garden? For what are you punished? Whose school do you attend? Who went with you? Whom do you follow? Which way has she gone?

Tell which of the above examples are pronouns, and which adjectives. (See Rem. 1.)

Tell which of the following pronouns are relative, which interrogative: —

He whose image thou art. From what fountain flowed their light? What title dost thou bear? Whose genius had angelic wings. What readiest way would bring me to the place? Who found the flower? I am he whom ye seek? He found the book for which I sent him. Of whom do you speak? That which was lost is found.

Correct the following examples: —

Who do you want? Whom is it? Who do you follow? Who are you looking for?

Rewrite the following sentences, and correct them in all respects: —

Why don't you eat nothin'? ridin' don't agree with you i guess. taint so in New York. Do you go on your own hook? Nice goings on, I dare say, Mr. Caudle. The Senate has gone it strong on the mileage. You cant ask me for nothin i haint got. She did it real nice. That was first rate.

Parse the above examples according to the following models —

“Who shall separate us from the love of Christ?”

Who is a pronoun, (why?) interrogative, (why?) its antecedent (subsequent) is not expressed; nominative *who*, possessive *whose*, objective *whom*; plural, the same; *third person, singular number, masculine gender*, because its antecedent (subsequent, no one in-

plied) is, (Rule III. Repeat it.) *nominative case*, and used as the subject of the proposition, "who shall separate." Rule I (Repeat it.)

"Whose books have you found?"

Whose is an *interrogative pronoun*; *nominative who*, &c., (person, number, and gender depending upon the answer,) *possessive case*, and is used to limit books by denoting possession. Rule VII. (Repeat it.)

"What seek ye?"

What is an *interrogative pronoun*; indeclinable; *third person*, (number and gender depending on the answer,) *objective case*, and used as the object of the verb. Rule VIII. (Repeat it.)

"What lesson shall we learn?"

What is a *pronominal adjective*, used *interrogatively*, and belongs to lesson for which it inquires. Rule V.

VERBS.

ORAL EXERCISE.

Do you see me use this chalk upon the board? What do I do? *Ans.* You *write*. Put this answer on your slates. Now, what do you do? *Ans.* We *write*. Let all who have written the words raise the hand. What do you do now? *Ans.* We *raise* our hands. What am I doing now? (The teacher walks towards his desk.) *Ans.* You *are walking*. When we do any thing, as *write*, *walk*, or *raise* the hand, we *act*, and the word which expresses the action is called a *verb*, and the acting person or thing is called the *subject*. What can a lamb do? *Ans.* *Run, frisk, frolic, jump, play*. Now write these words on your slates. What are you now doing? *Ans.* We *are writing*. What do you call the words which you have written? *Ans.* *Verbs*. What is the subject of each? Who speaks? *Ans.* *Ellen speaks*. What do you call *speaks*? What can a horse do? *Ans.* *Run, walk, gallop, trot, prance, eat, drink, draw, kick, sleep*. What kind of words are these? *Ans.* *Verbs*. What is the subject of each? Tell what a *bird*, a *fish*, a *dog*, a *toad*, a *bee*, can do? What are the words which tell what they do? See this book; it lies upon the desk. What does the book do? *Ans.* It does *nothing*. True, it does nothing, but what *tells* something about it? *Ans.* *Lies*. This chair stands upon the floor. What does the chair do? *Ans.* *Nothing*. What *tells* something about it? *Ans.* *Stands*. When words are used to *tell* or *say* what *state* things are in, they are called *verbs*. What then, *are lies* and *stands*? *Ans.* *Verbs*. (The teacher strikes upon his desk.) What does the desk do? *Ans.* *Nothing*. What was *done* to the desk? *Ans.* It *was struck*. (The teacher tears a piece of paper.) What does the paper do? *Ans.* *Nothing*. Very good; but what is *done* to the paper? *Ans.* It *is torn*. These words, which *tell* what *is done* to an object, are called *verbs*. What does the blackboard do? *Ans.* *Nothing*. Is there a blackboard? *Ans.* There *is*. Is what? *Ans.* *Is* a blackboard. Is there a desk? *Ans.* There *is*. Words which *tell* what *is* or *exists* are *verbs*. Tell the verbs in these examples, and then learn the definition of the verb: The boy plays. The girl sleeps. The lamp is broken. There is a slate in the desk.

A *verb* is a word which expresses *being, action, or state* as, *be, read, sleep, is loved.*

REM. 1. — The being, action, or state may be *affirmed, assumed, or used abstractly*; as, "George *runs.*" "George *running.*" "To *run.*" When an *affirmation* is made, the verb is either the predicate or copula of the proposition, and is said to be *finite*; when the action of the verb is *assumed*, it takes the construction of the *adjective*, is joined to the subject, and is called a *participle*; when it is used *abstractly*, it is separated from the subject, and being unlimited by its person or number, it is said to be *infinitive, (unlimited.)*

REM. 2. — *Affirm*, as here used, includes an *absolute* declaration; as, "Emma *learns;*" a *conditional* statement; as, "If Emma *learns;*" an *interrogation*; as, "Does Emma *learn?*" a *petition*; as, "May Emma *learn;*" a *command*; as, "Emma, *learn.*"

REM. 3. — The abstract or substantive verb is the simple BE, having no other power or value than to assert some attribute of a noun. When the attribute is a *quality*, this verb must always be used; as, "Lead is *heavy;*" but when the attribute is an *action*, it may blend with the verb *be*, and then both become one word; as, "The *sun is rising.*" "The *sun rises.*" The combined form then takes the name of verb, and undergoes inflections to represent *voice, mode, tense, number, and person*; in all other cases, the verb *to be* undergoes these variations. These verbs are called *attributive*, because to the pure verb they join an attribute.

REM. 4. — The verb *to be* is attributive, whenever it is used to assert existence; as, "There *was* a man sent from God." When thus used, the verb is commonly followed by its subject, and preceded by the expletive "there," which serves no other purpose than to introduce the sentence and indicate this peculiarity of the verb.

Every finite verb represents some *person or thing*, as acting or existing in a certain state, and this *person or thing* is called the *subject*; as, "*Frank plays.*" "*She sleeps.*"

EXERCISES.

Point out the verbs and their subjects in the following examples: The clouds vanish. The vapor rises. The plant lives. Flowers die. Children sing. They stand. Can you see? Here they are! The ice melts

Write appropriate verbs for the following nouns as subjects: —

Samuel, the pen, the book, flowers, we, oceans, moon, the earth, forests, the king, Victoria.

Write appropriate nouns, as subjects for the following verbs: —

Rules, is, thinks, hopes, learns, shine, grow, dig, revolve, sits, fears blossom, arise, sink.

Alter the following verbs so as to write them properly with their subjects: —

Time fly. The grass grow. The rain fall. The pupil try. The officer defy. The teacher say. The gas burn. The boy do. The peasant woo. The dove coo. The tailor cut. The dog bite.

Alter the following nouns and pronouns so that the verbs (as given) may unite with them: —

The merchants says. The sailor see. They thinks. He play. You

nopest. Some persons believes. The honest farmers labors. The diligent pupil learn. The old soldiers is maintained. The pleasant tasks is done.

Correct the following errors:—

Mans destiny cannot be fully none. Lucy has rote these lines of po'try on her slate i should be bizzy two for satan finds some mischief still for idle hands to do.*

CLASSES OF VERBS.

NOTE.—Let the teacher here give an oral exercise, the object of which shall be to *exhibit* the distinction between a *transitive* and an *intransitive*, a *regular* and an *irregular* verb. After the distinction is fully made, let the class attempt a statement of it, before learning the following definitions:—

Verbs are divided, according to their *use*, into *transitive* and *intransitive*.

A *transitive* verb requires the addition of an object to complete its meaning; as, "The servant opened the *door*."

An *intransitive* verb does not require the addition of an object to complete its meaning; as, "The sun rises." "The horse runs."

REM. 1.—Verbs may be divided on account of their relation to the subject into, —

(1.) The *abstract* or *substantive* verb BE, which represents no attribute of the subject whatever, but serves merely as a *copula*, or *link*, to bind an attribute to the subject.

(2.) *Attributive* or *mixed* verbs, in which an attribute denoting an action or state of the subject is blended with the copula; as, *runs* = *is running*; *is* being the copula, and *running* the attribute.

REM. 2.—Attributive verbs, including also the copula *to be*, have been divided into those which represent the subject in an *active* state, (active verbs;) those which represent it in a *passive* state, that is, in such a state as to *receive* or suffer an action, (passive verbs;) and those which represent the subject in *neither* of these states, (neuter verbs,) that is, a state in which it neither *acts* nor receives the effect of an action. But this distinction has little to do with the construction of language. It is the relation of the verb to a succeeding term that renders a classification important;* and hence, —

REM. 3.—The terms *transitive* and *intransitive* have been generally adopted by recent grammarians, as best suited to the purposes of construction. Although the idea of an act originating in an agent, and "passing over" to an object, seems inapplicable to such verbs as *have*, *possess*, *receive*, *acquire*, and many others, still the terms, as defined above, are liable to little or no objection.

* The old division is retained in the dictionaries, and the learner should understand, in consulting a dictionary, that *v. a.* after a verb is equivalent to *transitive*, *v. n.* to *intransitive*. Thus, *run*, *fly*, *walk*, though they represent the subject in a very active state, are marked *v. n.* = *verb neuter*.

REM. 4. — The *object* or *complement* of the transitive verb stands as an answer to the question *What?* with the verb; as, "The ox eats (*What?*) *hay, grass, oats, corn, &c.* To determine whether a verb is transitive or intransitive, we have only to use this test: ask with it the question *What?* or *Whom?* and if the sense requires that a noun or pronoun meaning a different thing from the subject should be added, it is transitive; otherwise it is intransitive.

REM. 5. — When the noun or pronoun thus added means the same person or thing as the subject, it is not the object, but is a *predicate-nominative*, and the verb is either intransitive, or transitive in the passive voice. All such verbs perform the office of the *copula*, and are, hence, called *copulative verbs*. These are *be*, (*the simple copula*), *become*, *seem*, *appear*, *stand*, *walk*, and other verbs of *position, motion, and condition*; the passive verbs *is called*, *is named*, *is styled*, *is appointed*, *is constituted*, *is elected*, *is chosen*, *is made*, *is esteemed*, *is reckoned*, and others.

REM. 6. — A transitive verb in a proposition necessarily implies three terms — a *subject* or *agent*, a *predicate*, and an *object*. When the verb assumes the passive form, the foregoing order is inverted, and we have an *object*, a *predicate*, and a *subject* or *agent*; as, "The locusts (*agent* = *sub.*) devoured (*pred.*) the grass," (*obj.* = *sub.*) was devoured (*pred.*) by the locusts, (*agent.*) An intransitive verb requires but two terms, a subject and predicate, and as it cannot assume the passive form, (except by the aid of a preposition,) the terms can undergo no such change as above.

REM. 7. — Many verbs are transitive in one signification, and intransitive in another. When the object is not necessarily implied, it is better to consider such verbs intransitive, and not transitive, because an object *may* be supplied; as, "She sings beautifully," (intransitive;) "She sings soprano," (transitive.)

REM. 8. — Some verbs, usually intransitive, become transitive when used with a causative signification; as, "The train usually runs at the rate of twenty-five miles an hour; but they *ran* a train (caused it run) at the rate of forty." Some verbs become transitive when they take an object after them of a kindred signification; as, "He ran a race, played a game."

EXERCISES.

Tell which of the following verbs are transitive, which intransitive:—

Dora loves her mother. The golden gates open. The moon silvers the distant hills. Lily has found her ring. Eleanor writes poetry. The snow melts. The icy fetters break. The innocent lamb dies. The child plays. You found the pearl. The twilight deepens. Does Cornelia live there? The fragrant flowers bloom. The king rules. She received a letter.

Write an appropriate subject and object for each of the following verbs:—

Rings, learn, find, hide, fears, remembers, inflicts, receives, lift, hears, renews, reviews, write.

MODEL. The sexton rings the bell.

Write an appropriate verb for each of the following subjects and objects:—

The scholar — his books. The sun — the snow. I — the merry sleigh bells. The lady — her friends. We — a reward. The boy — his sled. They — the tables. The little boy — his rocking horse. The slave — the diamond. They — charades

Rosy-fingered Aurora — the gates of day. Milton. *Paradise Lost.*

Substitute correct and more elegant expressions for the following in Italics: —

I *have got* to go. Nobody told me. She *had not ought* to tell. *Ain't* you afraid? I *have came* home. I *done* my work. I *learnt* her to do it. I *ain't* alone. In she *come*. He *knowed* his lesson. Is not this *grand* weather? *Thinks says* I, I will do it. I *reckon* you can. It rains *some* I shall be ten year old *come* May. Do you like *those kind of things*? She didn't know *nobody*. It is *her*. Mary and *me* are *to home*. She brought me a *great big* apple. She *fetches* me a book. I found her *a-cryin'*. I am glad to see *ye*; will *ye se'* down?

Verbs are divided, according to their *form*, into *regular* and *irregular*.

A *regular* verb is one which forms its past tense, and past participle, by adding *ed* * to the present tense; as, love, loved, loved; gain, gained, gained.

An *irregular* verb is one which does *not* form its past tense and past participle by the addition of *ed* * to the present tense; as, see, saw, seen; write, wrote, written.

A *defective* verb is one in which some of the parts are wanting; as, may, might, (participle wanting.)

An *auxiliary* verb is one which is employed in the conjugation of other verbs; as, have, in have loved.

An *impersonal* verb is one by which an action or state is asserted independently of any particular subject; as, "It rains." "It snows."

To verbs belong *voice*, *mode*, *tense*, *number*, and *person*.

VOICE.

ORAL EXERCISE.

In the sentence, "The bee builds a cell," which does something, the bee or the cell? *Ans.* The bee. Which is acted upon? *Ans.* The cell. Now, suppose we express the same in another way, and say, "A cell is built by the bee," what changes have we made? *Ans.* We have put *cell* before the verb, we have changed *builds* into *is built*, we have inserted *by*, and we have placed *bee* last. Which now acts, the bee or the cell? *Ans.* The bee, as before. Which is acted upon? *Ans.* The cell, as before. Which is the subject of the proposition now? *Ans.* Cell. Which was the subject before? *Ans.* Bee. Then, when *bee* is the subject, the sub-

* The suffix to every regular verb is *ed*. If the present tense ends in a mute, that letter must be dropped by Rule II., page 15.

ject *acts*; but when *cell* is the subject, the subject is *acted upon*; and when the subject acts, the verb is *builds*; when the subject is acted upon, the verb is, *is built*. The former is called the *active voice*, the latter the *passive voice*.

Voice is that form of the transitive verb which shows whether the subject *acts* or is *acted upon*.

There are two voices — the *active* and the *passive*.*

The *active* voice represents the subject as *acting*; as, "John *struck* William."

Here *John* is the subject, and *John* performs the act.

The *passive* voice represents the subject as *acted upon*, as, "William *was struck* by John."

Here *William* is the subject, but he does not act: he only receives the act, or is *acted upon*.

REM. 1. — Any sentence, having for its predicate a transitive verb, may be changed or transformed by changing the active to the passive voice, or the passive to the active. The same meaning, or nearly the same, will be expressed in either case.

REM. 2. — A transitive verb necessarily implies the presence of an *active* and a *passive* person or thing. The one *performs* the act, the other *receives* or *suffers* it. If the active one is made the subject of the sentence, the verb is said to be in the *active voice*; if the passive one is made the subject, the verb is said to be in the *passive voice*; as, "The locusts *devoured* (active) the grass." "The grass *was devoured* (passive) by the locusts." Strictly speaking, the ideas of *active* and *passive*, though manifesting themselves in the form of the verb, are not attributes of the verb, but of the persons or things connected with it, just as comparison, though exhibiting itself in the forms of the adjective, is really the bringing together of two or more *objects*, and not qualities.

The following are all the possible cases which can occur:—

I. One and the same person or thing may represent both relations, the *active* and the *passive*; as, "He *struck himself*." "She *struck herself*." "It *destroyed itself*." "You *struck yourself*." "I *struck myself*." (See Personal Pronoun, Rem. 3, p. 35.)

II. Two different persons or things may be employed to represent these relations.

(1.) One may be simply active, and the other simply passive; as, "George *struck William*" = *William was struck by George*.

(2.) Each may be, at the same time, both active and passive; as, "They *struck each other*" = *They struck, each [struck] the other*. (See p. 35.)

III. Three different persons or things may be employed; one active, and the other passive.

(1.) One may act, another suffers the act, while the third stands as that to which the act is tending; as, "He (act) gave *me* (tending to) a book,"

* *Passive* means *suffering*, that is, *suffering* or *receiving* an act, the subject or receiver, meanwhile, being in an inactive state.

(pass.) "*He told me his history*" = *His history was told me by him* = *was told his history by him*.

(2.) One acts, another is acted upon, and thereby transformed or made into the third; as, "*They made him an officer*" = *He was made an officer by them* = *An officer was made of him by them*. In this case there are but two different persons or things. The second and third denote the same individual.

REM. 3. — When the agent is *unknown*, or when we wish to *conceal* it, by drawing attention only to the *act* and the *object* affected by it, we use the passive voice; as, "*Gold is found* (by some one unknown, or known, but not mentioned) in California." But if we wish to make the agent prominent, we use the active voice; as, "*Moses conducted the Israelites out of Egypt*."

REM. 4. — Some intransitive verbs, when accompanied by the preposition following, admit of a passive form; as, "*They laughed at him*" = *He was laughed at*. So, when a verb takes two objects, one *direct* and the other *indirect*, the latter is sometimes made the subject of the verb in the passive voice; as, "*I told him a story*" = *He was told a story*.

REM. 5. — Certain intransitive verbs, as *come, arrive, fall, rise, &c.*, admit of a passive form, yet with an intransitive signification, as will be seen by observing that the *agent* or *actor*, not the *object*, is the subject of the sentence in either form; as, "*Babylon is fallen*," (has fallen.) This idiom is less common now than formerly, and may be regarded as an imitation of the French or German forms of similar verbs.

EXERCISE.

Tell which of the following verbs are in the active voice, which in the passive: —

The moon gives a pleasant light. The book was written by my father. The song of the bird is heard in the grove. Leverrier discovered a new planet. How doth the little busy bee improve each shining hour. Knowledge gives power. The stars were hidden by the dark cloud. The ice was melted by the warm rays of the sun. The scholars corrected the inelegant expressions which they used. The heavens declare the glory of God. The letter was written by the lawyer. He found the money.

Change in the above sentences, the verbs in the active voice into the passive, and the verbs in the passive voice into the active.

Represent each of the following objects as acted upon by some other object: —

Pencils, paper, sound, table, looking glass, gas, chair, bell, pens, books, gold, silver, air, ceiling, hat, cane, letters, water, ice, snow.

MODEL. *Pencils are broken, &c.*

Represent the following objects as acting upon some other object: —

Bees, children, philanthropists, the canary birds, discipline, imagination, exercise, the boy, the glass, pins, shoes, scholars, men, clouds, the watch, the cat, father, teachers, ministers, jewellers.

MODEL. *Bees gather honey, &c.*

MODE.

ORAL EXERCISE.

I see a dove upon the portico; but as I approach him, he flies away. I now say to you, while he is yet on the wing, "The dove is flying away." Who of you would think of looking on the portico for the dove? *Ans.* No one. But again, I see the dove as before, and I say to you, "The dove *may fly* away." Where would you now look for the dove? *Ans.* On the portico. But have I not spoken of his flying away? Yes, indeed, but you have not said that he is *actually* flying away. Then, to say something about *flying away*, does not always mean *actually flying away*. I may *think* of a dove flying; I may *imagine* one flying, but is he therefore, flying? *Ans.* He is not. So, when I wish to show what *actually* takes place, I have one *mode* of speaking, and when I wish to show what has been merely *thought of*, or *imagined*, but not yet *realized*, or *actually* done, I have another *mode* of speaking. Thus, when I say, "The boy is *playing*," or "The boy *may play*, *can play*, or *must play*," which expression shows you that he actually plays? and which allows you to suppose him at rest? Again, suppose I say, "If the boy *play*," *does* he play? *Ans.* He does not. It only supposes him to play. If now the boy were unoccupied, and you *desired* him to play, how would you express that desire? *Ans.* By saying, "*Come, boy, play with us.*" Thus you would employ another mode of speaking. All these ways of speaking are called *modes*. The following definitions will show you how many, and what the modes are:—

Mode is the *manner* in which the action, being, or state is asserted.

REM. 1. — Mode does not show the manner of the action or state, but the manner of its assertion. It may be asserted as a *reality*, or as something *imagined*, that *may*, *can*, or *must* take place, or as something *imagined* or *supposed*, which is placed under a condition, or as something *desired*. The manner of the action or state is expressed by means of limiting words; as, "The soldier *fought* (a reality) *bravely*," (manner of the act;) "The soldier *may fight* (something imagined) *bravely*," (manner of the supposed act.)

REM. 2. — The infinitive is not properly a mode of the verb; for, since it does not assert action at all, it cannot be said to have any *manner* or *mode* of assertion. The same may be said of the participles. In fact, the infinitive is a participle, partaking of the properties of the noun and the verb, as the (so called) participles partake of the properties of the adjective and the verb.

There are commonly reckoned five modes — the *indicative*, the *potential*, the *subjunctive*, the *imperative*, and the *infinitive*.

The *indicative* mode asserts a thing as *actually existing*: as, "James *loves*." "William *was struck*."

The *potential* mode asserts the *power*, *liberty*, *permission*, *necessity*, or *duty* of acting, or being in a certain state; as "We *can sing*." "You *may write*." "He *must read*." "They *should obey* the law."

The *subjunctive* mode asserts a thing as *conditional*, or *doubtful*; as, "If he *leave* me." "Though he *slay* me."

The *imperative* mode asserts a *command*, an *entreaty*, or a *permission*; as, "Write." "Go thou." "Be admonished."

The *infinitive* mode represents the action or state as an abstract noun; as, "To write." "To be seen."

REM. 1. — The indicative mode is used in principal propositions, and is employed to represent what is *actual*, *real*, or *absolute*. It may be used in interrogative or exclamatory sentences; as, "Has he arrived?" "The villain has fired the dwelling!" It is often used in subordinate propositions, but always to represent what is actual; as, "I know *that* he discovered (actually) the plot."

REM. 2. — The potential mode is also used in principal propositions, not, however, to represent the actual, but that which, at the time of speaking, exists, or is supposed to exist, only in *idea* — that which is merely *imagined* or *thought of*. The *ideal* act or state, however, is supposed to have some relation to *reality*. It *can* become a reality; that is, there is no impossibility in the way of its realization; no ability is wanting: it *may* become a reality, that is, *permission* is granted, or in the final result *perhaps* it will be a reality: it *must* become actual, that is, a *necessity*, or an obligation exists. This mode may be used in interrogative, exclamatory, or supplicatory sentences; as, "Can he leave the city in safety?" "He may be assassinated!" "May the truth be victorious." It may be used in subordinate propositions, but always to represent what is *ideal* or what has not been *realized*; as, "He says that I may (I do not now) attend school." The potential may be known by the auxiliaries, *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*.

REM. 3. — The subjunctive mode is used exclusively in subordinate propositions, and hence its name, (*sub*, under, and *jungo*, I join.) It is joined to the verb of the principal proposition by the subordinate conjunctions, *if*, *though*, *although*, *lest*, *except*, *that*, *save that*, *unless*, *provided that*, and some others; they impart the idea of *doubt*, *contingency*, or *conditionality*. Whatever of futurity may be implied in the subjunctive, is to be accounted for either from the fact that any thing that is conditional or contingent is *yet* to be realized, (if ever,) or from the influence of a suppressed auxiliary, such as *shall* or *should*, which imparts (though understood) the idea of futurity; as, "Though he (should) slay me, yet will I trust in him."

The subjunctive represents an ideal act, or a real act, conceived only as an idea, and places it under a condition accompanied with more or less doubt. As to a distinctive form of the subjunctive, it can scarcely be said to have any, unless it be found in the present tense, or present and past of *to be*; and in all such cases, (with the single exception of *were*, in examples like "If it *were*," "If I *were*,") by supplying an ellipsis, they may be referred to the forms of the indicative future or the past potential; as, "If it rain, we shall not leave" = If it *should* rain, &c. "Till one greater man restore (*shall* restore) us, and regain (*shall* regain) the blissful seat, sing, heavenly muse." The majority of writers, at the present time, employ the forms of the indicative present; as, "If it rains;" "If he leaves." Hence the subjunctive may be regarded as borrowing its forms from the indicative and potential modes.

REM. 4. — The imperative mode is used in principal propositions. It is the mode which expresses *will*, or *desire*. It may usually be known by

the omission of the subject; as, "*Read, (thou,) write.*" The force of this mode, under the same form, depends upon the relation of the parties. If a superior speaks imperatively to an inferior, it is a command; if an equal to an equal, it is an exhortation or an entreaty; if an inferior to a superior, it is a prayer or supplication. The imperative is made subordinate only in a direct quotation; as, "God said, Let there be light." It is often elegantly put for a conditional clause; as, "Let but the commons hear this testament, and they would go and kiss dead Caesar's wounds" = "Could the commons, &c., or, If the commons could but hear, &c."

REM. 5. — The infinitive is used in abridged propositions, and hence is wholly dependent, being incorporated as an element of another proposition. It does not assert any thing; it is not limited by the number and person of a subject, and hence its name, *infinitive* = *unlimited*, in distinction from *finite*, which is applied to all verbs used in construction with their subjects, and thereby limited by the number and person of the latter.

The infinitive is an abstract noun, and, as such, may become, (1.) the *subject* of a proposition; as, "*To err* is human" = *It is human to err.* (2.) With the copula it may become the *predicate*; as, "*To obey* is to enjoy." (3.) It may be in *apposition*; as, Delightful task to rear the tender thought. (4.) It may be the object of a transitive verb; as, "*She loves to sing.*" (5.) It may be the object of a preposition; as, "*He is about to go.*" But while it has the construction of a noun, it is modified like a verb. It may be in the active or passive voice; as, *to love, to be loved*; it may be in the present or perfect tense; as, *to love, to have loved*; it may govern an object, or be limited by an adverb, like any verb, but is never qualified by an adjective, although it may have an adjective in the predicate belonging to it; as, "*To steal is base.*"

Although the infinitive is an abstract noun, it may, nevertheless, be associated with the object from which it has been abstracted; as, "*The soldier faints,*" (finite,) "*for the soldier to faint,*" (infin. ;) "*He goes,*" (finite,) "*for him to go,*" (infin. ;) "*we told him to go,*" (infin.)

EXERCISES.

Tell the mode of each of the following verbs : —

The walk is pleasant. If it rains, I shall not go to Boston. The children went into the garden. What is a thought-flower? May I go to the concert? Hear the rain pattering upon the roof. I will stay at home. Be entreated by me. I love to hear music. If I send her home, she will be unhappy. Do let me help you! The lamb is the emblem of innocence. I must not stay. Do you see the snow flakes? How pure and white they are! He maketh me to lie down in green pastures. Hope thou in God. Whom shall I fear?

Write a subject to each of the following verbs, putting them first in the indicative, and then in the potential modes : —

Change, exalt, console, go, vary, turn, weep, mourn, lament, fear, ride, travel, exhaust, walk, hope, reconcile, grow, know, pity, do, sleep.

Select from your reading lessons examples of each of the modes.

Correct the faulty expressions which you have collected.

PARTICIPLES.

A *participle* is a word having the signification of a verb but the construction of an adjective; as, "We found him

lying on the ground." "Having written his letter, he sent it to his friend."

REM. 1. — The participle is so called from its participating the properties of the verb and adjective. It is the attributive part of the verb alone; it is the being, action, or state deprived of the power of assertion; and therefore, when joined without the copula to the noun whose attribute it expresses, it must be assumed, (not predicated,) just as an adjective is assumed under similar circumstances. It has the meaning of the verb, is modified like the verb, but is used like the adjective.

REM. 2. — It is not a distinct part of speech, but is derived directly from the verb, the present by adding *ing*, the past by adding *ed*, to all regular verbs, and the perfect by prefixing to the past the auxiliary *having*.

There are, properly, two participles — the *present* and the *perfect*; as, *reading*, *having read*; (*being*) *loved*, *having been loved*.

REM. 1. — These two participles correspond to the present and perfect tenses of the verb. They are used in abridged propositions; the former when the proposition before its abridgment was in the present, past, or future tense; the latter when it was in either of the perfect tenses.

There are, however, three forms, commonly called participles — the *present*, the *past*, and the *perfect*.

EXAMPLES.

	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf.</i>
ACTIVE VOICE .	<i>loving,</i>	<i>loved,</i>	<i>having loved.</i>
PASSIVE VOICE .	<i>(being) loved,</i>	<i>loved,*</i>	<i>having been loved.</i>

REM. 1. — The form called the *past participle* may have been once the passive participle, having the same form. (See Rem. on the auxiliary *Have*, p. 74.) If so, it has now wholly lost its original signification, and, strictly speaking, has lost its character as a participle. It never partakes of the properties of the adjective; it never is used to limit a noun like that part of speech; it is never used alone in participial constructions, that is, where the participle, with the words depending upon it, takes the place of a subordinate proposition; it is always found in the predicate, either of complete or abridged propositions, and is connected with some form of *have*, as, *have loved*, *had loved*, *having loved*; it has an active signification, and always denotes a past, completed act, and belongs as well to intransitive as to transitive verbs.

REM. 2. — The passive participle of the same form, on the contrary, is limited to transitive verbs, has always a passive signification, may denote as well present as past time; it may have the participial construction, or, with the copula, may form the *passive verb* in all the modes and tenses.

* The passive participle does not necessarily denote past time. Of itself, it simply denotes the reception of an act, complete or incomplete. The time depends upon that of the verb with which it is associated.

REM. 3. — Participles, in their appropriate use, take the place of dependent propositions, and consequently represent time in the same manner as the propositions from which they are derived.

As the verb of the dependent clause dates from the time expressed by the principal verb, and not from that of the speaker, the participle may be present with a past, present, or future act; as, "I saw a man *walking*;" "I see a man *walking*;" "I shall see a man *walking*." So, again, the participle may denote a past act, completed at the time of a past, present, or future act; as, "*Having ploughed* his field, the farmer *sowed*, *sows*, *will sow* the seed."

The *present active* participle denotes an action or state present, and in progress at the time represented by the principal verb; as, "We *find*, *found*, or *shall find* him *sitting* in a chair."

REM. 1. — This participle always ends in *ing*; it has an active signification, and may be used in abridging propositions; as, "I saw a man *walking in the meadow*." It may be used wholly as an adjective; it is then placed before the noun; as, "The *roaring* billows." When thus used, it is called a *participial adjective*. It may be used with the copula in the *progressive form* of the predicate; as, "I am *reading*." It may be used (1.) wholly as a noun, with the preceding, and of following; as, "The *reading* of the law;" or (2.) in the construction of the noun with the modifications of the verb; as, "The eye is never satisfied with *beholding* the stupendous works of the Creator."

REM. 2. — Though this participle is usually active, it sometimes has a passive signification, especially when an object is undergoing a progressive change; as, "The house is *building*." "New efforts are *making* for the extension of this trade." — *Webster*. "This new tragedy was *acting*." — *Everett*. Recent writers of some distinction have adopted the forms, "The house is *being built*." "Preparations are *being made*." It is not the province of the grammarian to dictate as to questions of usage, but to admit and explain whatever good, national, and reputable usage sanctions. When subjected to these tests, it must be said of such forms, that they are by no means adopted by the best writers as good English, and they are of too recent origin to be regarded as idioms of the language.

The *present passive* participle denotes the reception of an act, at the time represented by the principal verb; as, "He *lives*, *lived*, *will live*, *loved* by all."

REM. 1. — This participle may be used as an adjective, or with the copula, to form the passive verb; as, "A *refined* taste is *possessed* only by the *cultivated*." When preceded by *being*, it may be used as a noun; as, "By *being involved* in one wrong act, he was soon lost to all the appeals of his friends."

The *perfect active* participle denotes an action or state completed at the time represented by the principal verb; as, "*Having finished* his speech, he *sat* down."

The *perfect passive* participle denotes the reception of an act, past and completed, at the time represented by the prin-

principal verb ; as, "*Having been driven* from home, he enlisted in the army."

REM. — The perfect participles are never used like the present, with the copula, to form the predicate. They may be used as verbal nouns ; as "He was accused of *having obtained* goods on false pretences."

The action or state expressed by the participle may be either *predicated* or *assumed* ; as, "The horse *is running* through the street ;" "The horse *running* through the street."

REM. 1. — The participle, when predicated, constitutes, with the copula, or auxiliary *have*, a form of the verb. The present participle is used in the *progressive form* or imperfect tenses ; the past in the *complete form*, or perfect ; the passive, in the *passive form* ; as, "The farmer *was ploughing* his field." "The farmer *had ploughed* his field." "The field *was ploughed* by the farmer."

REM. 2. — The participle, when assumed, is equivalent to a subordinate clause ; as, "The boat which sails on yonder lake *is propelled* by steam" = The boat *sailing* on yonder lake *is propelled* by steam.

EXERCISES.

Give the present participle of the following verbs : —

Find, rely, honor, obey, refuse, visit, paper, paint, exercise, study, parse, construe, join, mature, plan, inquire, cultivate. *The past participle of the following verbs* : Plant, ride, paint, suffer, hope, retreat, grow, mind, endow, resemble, suppose. *The perfect participle of the following* : Bind, loose, hang, perfume, make, gain, lay, come, sit, dream, wind, imagine, hinder, assist, arrive, release, take, place, sing.

Give the present, past, and perfect participles of the following transitive verbs : —

Trill, fill, heat, cool, weary, excite, exhaust, enchant, enjoy, dissipate, remember, write, learn, ventilate.

Change the participles in the last examples to the corresponding passive participles.

Mention any action of the following objects ; first predicate the act, then assume it : —

Goldfish, carrier dove, chicken, peacock, horse, lamb, rabbit, squirrel, partridge, hen, camel, man, woodcock, mirrors, chairs, swallow, scholars, hopes, dreams.

Use any of the above participles with is, and write an appropriate subject, thus : The singer is trilling his note.

Correct the following examples in all respects, not forgetting any error expressed or implied in the thought : —

Ella went to my house yesterday and i and her sit by the window and see how the sun drawed water from my father's mill-pond.
abel said how last evenin he see a star fall jest over his uncle calebs bara.

peter says how his father thinks the geography hadn't ought to say that the earth turns over on its axle coz we should all fall of when we get on 'tother side.

How many errors have you heard in the school room to-day? How many have you corrected? How many of them are you sure you shall hereafter avoid?

TENSE.

ORAL EXERCISE.

As I look out of the window, I see the rain falling: how can I so speak as to show that it falls now? *Ans.* By saying, "It *rains*." But suppose I should wait till the next day, and then speak of the same thing as having happened the day before, what should I say? *Ans.* "It *rained*." What word has been changed? Why was it altered? If I felt assured that rain would fall to-morrow, what should I say in speaking of it before it happened? *Ans.* "It *will rain*." What word has been added to the word *rain*? Why was it added? Then we can speak of a thing *when* it happens, *after* it happens, or *before* it happens. How many different times are shown by the words *rains*, *rained*, and *will rain*? *Ans.* Three. Which one shows that the raining and speaking both happened together? Which shows that the raining happened *before* the speaking? Which shows that the raining was to happen *after* the speaking? If any thing happens before we speak of it, we say it is *past*, or it happened in *past time*. When any thing is to happen after we speak of it, we say, it is *future*, or it will take place in *future time*. Then we can speak of a thing as taking place in present time, past time, or future time.

Tell the time represented in the following examples:—

We sing. They run. He will ride. I act. John came. You will study. David was injured. He will walk.

A farmer commences ploughing his field at six o'clock in the morning, and continues till six in the afternoon, when he finishes his work. How long is the act in progress? *Ans.* Twelve hours. When did it begin? When end? Mention any hour when it was in progress. Mention any hour before or after it was in progress. Then the act of ploughing had a *beginning*, a *progress*, and an *end*. Now, suppose I wish to speak of the ploughing indefinitely, as we did of the rain, without reference to the beginning, progress, or end; how should I put it in present, past, or future time? *Ans.* By saying, The farmer *ploughs*, *ploughed*, or *will plough*. But suppose I see the act in progress, and I wish to speak of it as actually now taking place, without reference to its beginning or end; how shall I speak? *Ans.* By saying, He *is ploughing*. How can I show the same thing in past or future time? *Ans.* By saying, He *was ploughing*, he *will be ploughing*. Suppose, now, I should see him at six o'clock in the afternoon, just as he had finished his work, and I wish to speak, not of the beginning or progress of the work, but of the *end* or *completion* of it; how can I represent this completion in present time? *Ans.* By saying, The farmer *has ploughed* his field. Will you put it in past time? in future time? *Ans.* He *had ploughed*, he *will have ploughed* his field. Then, if we speak of an act without reference to its progress or end, we have one form of the verb. What is the past, present, and future of it? *Ans.*

Present. . The farmer *ploughs*.

Past. . The farmer *ploughed*.

Future. . The farmer *will plough*.

How can I so speak as to put the unfinished or *progressing* act in the present? the past? the future?

By saying, —

Present. . . The farmer *is ploughing*.

Past. . . . The farmer *was ploughing*.

Future. . . The farmer *will be ploughing*.

How can I so speak as to put the end or completion of the act in the present? the past? the future?

By saying, —

Present. . . The farmer *has ploughed*.

Past. . . . The farmer *had ploughed*.

Future. . . The farmer *will have ploughed*.

How many different *times* do we refer all actions to? *Ans.* Three. The *present*, the *past*, the *future*. How many different *states* of the act can we show? *Ans.* Three. The act in progress, without reference to the end of it; the *end*, without reference to beginning or progress of it; and the *simple act*, without reference to either. What is the *time* of the following acts? The wind blows. The dog barked. The trees have bent. The grass will grow. The fire will have burned. The lesson ends. — The *state* of the following? The bell is ringing. The mail has arrived. The birds had sung. The leaves fall. The fishes will be swimming. — Now give the *time* and *state* of each.

Tense denotes the *time* of an action or event.

REM. 1. — Although tense properly denotes the *time* of an action or event, the tense form of the verb is made also to denote the *state* of an act. If an act is spoken of without reference to its *progress* or *completion*, we have the simple or indefinite present, past, or future; as, I *love*, I *loved*, I *shall love*. But if a *progressive* and unfinished state of the act is to be represented, we have another form for the present, past, and future; as, I *am writing*, I *was writing*, I *shall be writing*. If, again, we wish to represent the *finished* or *completed* state of an *indefinite* act, we have still another form for the present, past, and future; as, I *have loved*, I *had loved*, I *shall have loved*. If we wish to represent the *finished* or *completed* state of a *progressive* act, we have yet another form; as, I *have been writing*, I *had been writing*, I *shall have been writing*. If we wish to make the simple form emphatic, we have still another; as, I *do love*, I *did love*, for the present and past. If we wish to show that the subject is *receiving* or *suffering* an act in present, past, or future time, we have still another form; as, I *am loved*, I *was loved*, I *shall be loved*.

REM. 2. — Tense does not mean the time which elapses from the beginning to the end of an act, that is, the duration of an act. But it refers either to the present, to an indefinite period antecedent to the present, or to an indefinite period subsequent to the present. The present, strictly speaking, has no length; it is the point where the past and future meet. But for the purposes of language, any portion, as a day, a month, a year, a century, may be taken as the present, and all other time as past or future. The present progressive form is, however, always the moment of speaking.

The present is the point or period of time assumed by the speaker or writer, and is the epoch to which all events are referred. Whatever occurs in it, whether before or after the precise moment of speaking, is present; whatever occurs out of it is either past or future.

There are three divisions of time — the *past*, the *present*, and the *future*.

REM. — Were it not necessary to make other distinctions in time based on subdivisions of these three, there would be but three tense forms, the *pres-*

ent, the past, and the future. But it is often required to give to an event a double reference: (1.) to the time of speaking, and (2.) to a given point or portion of the present, past, or future.

Tenses which *require* this second point of reference are called *relative tenses*; while those which have only a single reference to the speaker are called *absolute tenses*.

Each division has two tenses — an *absolute* and a *relative*. There are, therefore, six tenses — three absolute and three relative; as, (absolute,) “*I write*,” “*I wrote*,” “*I shall write*”; (relative,) “*I have written*,” (some time to-day or this year,) “*I had written*,” (before the boat sailed,) “*I shall have written*,” (at noon.)

REM. 1. — The absolute tenses take their name from the division of time to which they belong. Thus we have the *present* tense, the *past* tense, the *future* tense. The relative tenses affix to the name of the tense the word *perfect*. Thus we have the *present perfect*, the *past perfect*, and the *future perfect*.

REM. 2. — To these six tenses may be added, with propriety, three others, called the *present imperfect*, *past imperfect*, and *future imperfect*; as, “*I am writing*”; “*I was writing*”; “*I shall be writing*.” These forms are usually relative tenses; as, “*I am writing* while you are reading”; “*I was writing* when the coach arrived”; “*I shall be writing* when you return.” These are, however, called the *progressive* form of the verb, and may be used even in the perfect tenses, to show that a progressive act is completed; as, “*I have been writing*,” (but I am not now); “*I had been writing*,” (but I was not at the past time referred to); “*I shall have been writing*,” (but not at the future time referred to.)

The tenses are — the *present*, the *present perfect*; the *past*, the *past perfect*; the *future*, the *future perfect*.

The *present* tense represents what takes place in present time; as, “*I see*”; “*I am seeing*”; “*I do see*”; “*I am seen*.”

REM. 1. — By present time is meant the present of the speaker or writer. The present of the hearer is the same as that of the speaker; but that of the reader is not the same as that of the writer.

REM. 2. — This tense, in the common form, is used to denote a general truth, or what is customary; as, “*The boy attends school*”; “*Vice produces misery*”; “*Truth is powerful*.” In the progressive form, it expresses what is now actually taking place; as, “*He is writing*.” Mark the difference between “*He sings*,” that is, “*He is a singer*,” (but is not singing now,) and “*He is singing*.”

REM. 3. — The present is often used for other tenses. (1.) It is used for the *past* in animated narratives, where the writer or speaker seems transported to the scene which he describes; as, “*He seizes his musket, approaches the monster, and lays him upon the ground*.” (2.) It is used for the *present perfect* in speaking of authors long since dead, when their writings are referred to; as, “*Matthew traces the descent of Joseph; Luke traces that of Mary*.” (3.) It is used for the future after *relative pronouns*, and the subordinate connectives, *till*, *until*, *as soon as*, *when*, *before*,

g, as, "We will pay him when he *comes*." "He will devour every insect which *comes* in his way."

The *present perfect* tense represents a past event completed in present time; as, "I *have seen*;" "I *have been seeing*;" "I *have been seen*."

REM. 1. — Whenever the attention is drawn to the completion of an act, the question of time refers not to the entire act, but to the *end* of it. If the completion takes place in a portion of time which the speaker assumes as present, however long that portion may be, or however remote the time of the completion may be from the moment of speaking, the tense is the *present perfect*; as, "I have written a letter this year." The letter might have been *finished* on the first of January, but the *mention* of it might have been made on the last of the following December. But should one moment intervene between the portion assumed as present (*one year* in the above example) and the portion in which the act took place, the *past* must be used if we simply refer to the act, or the *past perfect* if we refer to the completion of the act.

REM. 2. — This tense, like the present, is used for other tenses; as, "Shakspeare *has excelled* all other dramatists." "When I *have finished* my task, I shall return."

The *past* tense represents what took place in time wholly past; as, "I *saw*." "I *was seeing*." "I *was seen*."

REM. 1. — The past and the present perfect may both refer to one and the same act. If the speaker refers to an act indefinitely, that is, without regard to its progress or completion, and places it in the past, beyond any portion of what he assumes as present, he must use the past tense; as, "I *wrote* this forenoon;" the afternoon being assumed as present. "I *have written* (the same act) to-day;" the whole day being assumed as present, and the completion (how it may have been with the beginning is not material) has taken place in that present.

REM. 2. — The past tense, common form, is to past time what the present, common form, is to present time. It refers to an act indefinitely. It denotes, like the present, what is *customary*; as, "He attended school constantly." But in the progressive form it denotes a definite act in past time, but not completed; as, "He *was writing* when I came."

The *past perfect* represents a past event completed in time wholly past; as, "I *had seen*." "I *had been seeing*." "I *had been seen*."

REM. — The present perfect, the past, and the past perfect may each refer to the same act. Suppose a person to write a letter on Monday; he speaks of it on Wednesday, assuming Wednesday alone as the present. He says, (referring to the act absolutely and indefinitely,) "I *wrote* a letter." But while he was writing the mail arrived; he now says, (referring definitely and relatively to the act *unfinished*, but in *progress*.) "I *was writing* a letter when the mail arrived." Again: in speaking of the same act, he says, (referring definitely and relatively to the *completion* of the act,) "I *had written* a letter before the mail left;" or he may say, (referring definitely and relatively both to the *progress* and *completion* of the act,) "I *had been writing* a letter." These forms are used, first, because the *time* was *wholly past*, including no part of Wednesday; secondly, because as

Indefinite absolute act in past time requires the simple past, *wrote*; a definite relative and progressive act in past time requires the past progressive form, *was writing*; while a completed relative act in past time requires the past perfect, *had written*, and a completed progressive past act requires the past perfect progressive, *had been writing*. Now, let the speaker assume, not Wednesday, (though that be the day of speaking, as before,) but the *whole week*, as the present; he cannot say, "I *am writing*," for the act is not now going on; he cannot say, "I *wrote*," for the act is included in the time assumed as present, i. e., the time is not *wholly* past. But he can say, (referring to the *completion* of the act in the assumed present,) "I *have written* a letter," (this week;) or, (referring both to the *progress* and *completion* of the act,) "I *have been writing* a letter," (this week.)* These forms are used, first, because the *time* (one week) is not wholly past, and secondly, because the *nature* of the act, as before, requires them.

The *future tense* represents what will take place in future time; as, "I *shall see*." "I *shall be seeing*." "I *shall be seen*."

REM. — The future, like the simple present or past, is used to denote a future custom; as, "Ephraim *shall* not envy Judah, and Judah *shall* not vex Ephraim." "The lion *shall* eat straw like the ox."

The *future perfect* tense represents an event as completed in future time; as, "I *shall have seen*." "I *shall have been seeing*." "I *shall have been seen*."

TENSES IN ALL THE MODES.

The subjunctive mode has *six tenses* — the same as the indicative.

The potential mode has *four tenses* — the present, present perfect, past, and past perfect.

The infinitive has *two tenses* — the present and perfect.

The imperative has only *one tense* — the present.

REM. 1. — Tense, in the subjunctive mode, does not usually mark time with the same exactness as in the indicative.

(1.) In conditional clauses, if the thing spoken of denotes something *actual*, or taken as actual, the tense form usually denotes the true time; as, "If it *rained*, I did not know it." But if it refers to something merely hypothetical or supposed, the past tense represents present time, and the past perfect, past time; as, "If I *were going* now, (but I cannot,) I should ride." "If I *had had* an opportunity yesterday, (but I had none,) I should have spoken to him."

* TO THE TEACHER. — In drilling pupils on tenses, it is important, first, to give a clear idea of what is assumed as *present*. It is not always expressed as above "Wednesday, a week," but is more frequently assumed without notice, merely implied, as, "He *has written*." In the second place, the *nature* or *state* of the act as *indefinite*, *progressive*, *completed*, or *progressive completed*, should be fully exhibited.

(2.) The verb to *be* has a distinct form for the past tense used hypothetically and denoting present time; as, "If I *were* not Alexander, I would be Diogenes."

(3.) *Were* in this use cannot stand for *would be*, or *would have been*, although it otherwise uses it may; as, "It *were* an impossibility to raise the requisite sum." *Had*, in like manner, is used for *would* or *would have*; as, "I *had* rather be a dog, and bay the moon, than such a Roman." "It *had* been better for him if he had pursued the opposite course."

REM. 2. — The tenses in the potential mode have by no means the signification which their names denote.

(1.) The present denotes present possibility, permission, ability, or necessity to perform an act sometimes present, and sometimes future; as, "We *may* (now) go (to-morrow)." "You *can* (now) write (now)." "He *must* (now) leave," (now, to-morrow, next week.)

(2.) The present perfect generally denotes a present possibility, necessity, &c., that a past act was performed; as, "I *must* have written" = It is now undeniable that I wrote (yesterday.)

(3.) The past denotes (a.) a past possibility, &c., to perform an act; as, "Can you write?" "I *could* write yesterday." "He *would* often sit the entire evening without uttering a word." *Would*, and *might* are now seldom, if ever, used to denote past time. (b.) It denotes the present possibility, &c., when followed by a conditional clause; as, "I *might* or *could* go (now) if I *would*." "I *should* or *would* go (now) if I *could*." (c.) It denotes a future possibility, &c.; as, "I *shall* not go; but if I *should* go, (hereafter,) I *could* (hereafter) walk." (d.) It denotes a universal duty without reference to time; as, "Children *should* obey their parents."

(4.) The past perfect denotes usually a past possibility, &c., but by no means a past completed act, as in the indicative, thus: "I *could* have assisted you (yesterday) if you had desired it" = I was able to assist you.

REM. 3. — The infinitive mode has but two tenses, the present and perfect. They denote, the former an indefinite or progressive, and the latter a completed state of the act; as, "*To* write." "*To* be writing." "*To* have written." "*To* have been writing."

(1.) The infinitive, like the participle, may be connected with any mode or tense of the principal verb.

(2.) The present infinitive denotes a time present with that of the principal verb, and not necessarily present with the speaker; as, "I *intend* to write." "I *intended* to write." "I *had* intended to write." "I *shall* begin to write."

(3.) The perfect denotes a past act completed at the time denoted by the principal verb; as, "She *is* said to have sung." "She *was* thought to have written." "She *will* be known to have done it."

REM. 4. — The imperative has only the present tense, which denotes the time of giving a command; the time of its performance is future.

EXERCISES.

Tell the TENSES of the following verbs : —

Did you hear the lecture? He listened earnestly. I hope to find the study interesting. It will not rain. He had intended to go. I have heard the Irish orator. He saw the constellation of the Southern Cross. Is he confident of success? He will have learned his lesson by the time we wish to leave. I shall have finished my work when Sarah comes. The child cried. Was the view pleasant? Is he intelligent? Are the notes of the nightingale sad? Had she read the book? She is loved by all. The hills were covered with snow.

Tell the TENSES of the following verbs; also which denote the EXCEPTION

of an act, which the *PROGRESS*, which the *COMPLETION* of an act, and which an *INDEFINITE* act : —

The paper is published in Boston. Is he planting the seed? Has Frank been drawing? She found her lost treasure. I shall be allowed to go. When will she go to ride? Have they been to the concert? He sings. He is teaching. Happiness will be her portion. Sorrow is the common lot. Have you been taught to sew? Had he heard the good news? I wish to go. I will not be denied. He shall not forget the penalty. Flowers bloom. Stars fade. They will have gone when you come. He tore the book. You saw the bright star. When will you go? What shall I do? William has gained the prize. Have you been to Europe? She writes easily. He has been learning to skate. He tells me pleasant stories. She will always do right. He did right. He loves the right. The clock has struck. He was never known to tell a lie. He had been promoted. She is contented. You do not think so. You will learn to know her better. It shall not be. He is deceived. He has fallen from the tree. He broke his arm. He ran away. He was carrying the package. She had been home.

FORMS OF THE VERB.

Transitive verbs may have four forms — the *common*, the *emphatic*, the *progressive*, and the *passive*; as, “I love.” “I do love.” “I am loving.” “I am loved.”

REM. — The *emphatic* form is confined to the present and past indicative, and the present imperative. The other forms are extended through all the modes and tenses.

Intransitive verbs may have three forms — the *common*, the *emphatic*, and the *progressive*; as, “I sit.” “I do sit.” “I am sitting.”

The *common* form represents an act indefinitely, as a custom, or as completed without reference to its progress; as, “I love.” “I loved.” “I shall love.” “I have loved.”

REM. — The variations of this form, in the second and third persons, as seen in the terminations *est* and *eth*, belong to what is called the *solemn style*. They are found in the Scriptures, in forms of prayer, and in various sacred books.

The *emphatic* form represents an act with emphasis; as “I do write.” “I did write.”

REM. — This form is used in interrogative or negative sentences without emphasis; as, “Do you write?” “Did you write?” “I do not write.”

The *progressive* form represents the *progress* of an unfinished act; as, “I am writing.”

REM. — In the perfect tenses, it represents the *completion* of a progressive act; as, “I have been writing.” “I shall have been writing.”

The *passive* form represents the reception of an act; as, "I *am* loved." "I *was* loved." "I *shall be* loved."

REM. 1.—The perfect tenses of this form are used when we wish to represent the *completion* of a *passive* state; as, "I *have been* honored." "I *had been* honored." "I *shall have been* honored."

REM. 2.—The following table gives the forms for each division of time with a description of the state of the act:—

FORMS FOR EACH DIVISION OF TIME.

I. PRESENT.

	Time.	Act.	Example.
1.	Present.	Indefinite.	He <i>writes</i> .
2.	"	Progressive incomplete.	He <i>is writing</i> .
3.	"	Complete.	He <i>has written</i> .
4.	"	Progressive complete.	He <i>has been writing</i> .
5.	"	Indefinite emphatic.	He <i>does write</i> .
6.	"	Indefinite received.*	The letter <i>is written</i> .
7.	"	Progressive received.*	The house <i>is building</i> .
8.	"	Complete received.*	The letter <i>has been written</i> .

II. PAST.

1.	Past.	Indefinite.	He <i>wrote</i> .
2.	"	Progressive incomplete.	He <i>was writing</i> .
3.	"	Complete.	He <i>had written</i> .
4.	"	Progressive complete.	He <i>had been writing</i> .
5.	"	Indefinite emphatic.	He <i>did write</i> .
6.	"	Indefinite received.*	The letter <i>was written</i> .
7.	"	Progressive received.*	The house <i>was building</i> .
8.	"	Complete received.*	The letter <i>had been written</i> .

III. FUTURE.

1.	Future.	Indefinite.	He <i>will write</i> .
2.	"	Progressive incomplete.	He <i>will be writing</i> .
3.	"	Complete.	He <i>will have written</i> .
4.	"	Progressive complete.	He <i>will have been writing</i> .
5.	"	Indefinite received.*	The letter <i>will be written</i> .
6.	"	Progressive received.*	The house <i>will be building</i> .
7.	"	Complete received.*	The letter <i>will have been written</i> .

Each part of the various forms contributes a share towards the general meaning of the tense, and every compound tense should be analyzed.

MODELS FOR ANALYSIS.

We are marching. *Are* is an auxiliary verb, denotes present time, and asserts a thing as actual; *marching* is a present participle, denoting a progressive act; hence *are marching* is the present tense, indicative mode, progressive form.

I do write. *Do* is an auxiliary verb, denotes the present tense, asserts a thing as actual, and imparts emphasis; *write* denotes the act used indefinitely; hence *do write* is the present indicative, emphatic form.

* By the subject.

- He will sing* *Will* is an auxiliary verb, denotes future time, (simply predicts,) and asserts a thing as actual; *sing* denotes the act used indefinitely; hence *will sing* is in the future tense, indicative mode.
- He has conquered* *Has* is an auxiliary verb, denotes present time, is a sign of completed action, and asserts a thing as actual; *conquered* is the past participle of *conquer*, denoting a completed or perfect act; hence *has conquered* is the present perfect indicative.
- I had been writing* *Had* is an auxiliary verb, denotes past time, is a sign of completion, and with *been* asserts a thing as actual; *been* is the past participle of the auxiliary *to be*, and is used to denote completion; *writing* is the present participle of *write*, formed by adding *ing*, (Rule II., p. 15,) and denotes a progressive act; hence *had been writing* is the past perfect progressive indicative.
- They will have fought* . . *Will* is an auxiliary verb; it denotes future time, (simply predicts,) and asserts a thing as actual; *have* is a sign of completion; hence *will have* is the sign of future completion; *fought* is the past participle of *fight*; it denotes completion; hence *will have fought* is the future perfect tense indicative.
- I may read* *May* is an auxiliary verb; it denotes present time, asserts a thing as imagined or thought of, (not as actual,) and gives permission; *read* denotes an indefinite act; hence *may read* is the present potential common form.
- If he is detained* *Is* is an auxiliary verb, denotes present time, and of itself asserts a thing as actual, but under the influence of *if* asserts a thing as doubtful and conditional; *detained* is a passive participle, denoting the reception of an act; hence *is detained* is the present passive subjunctive.

EXERCISE.

In the same manner analyze the following examples:—

The tempest has passed. The sun was rising. I shall be satisfied. The sailor would have been discharged, if he had not given a satisfactory excuse. The boys were anxious to go. The boy hoped to have finished the work before the storm approached. Go to the prison. Write an answer. It may have been delayed. If you should write a correct lesson, you would be commended.

Write three examples of the emphatic indicative past; three of the progressive past perfect; four of the progressive potential past perfect; also any other which your teacher may give.

Select from your Reader one example of each tense, and analyze it.

Tell the MODE, TENSE, and FORM of each of the following verbs:—

Shepherd, lead on. Sweet is the breath of morn. These are thy works. He will be coming. Silence filled the courts of heaven. A little new born spirit knelt before the Eternal Throne. Thus far shalt thou go. He leads them forth through golden portals. Truth, crushed to earth

shall live again Do thou in secret pray? When the eye saw him, then it blessed him. If thy brother die, he shall live again. It is sown a natural body, it is raised a spiritual body. By that time he will have been reaping his wheat Books were ready comrades, whom he could not tire. Thou must go to rest. He sunk to repose where the red heaths are blended. He has been studying his lesson. She had seen better days I would have blessed the strand. Be exalted, ye valleys. I will love the sea because it is his grave. Pale mourned the lily where the rose had died Suffer little children to come unto me. He would hardly have known him She was sitting by the side of her friend. They were walking on the beach The sun will have set when I reach home If he will do well, he shall be rewarded.

Correct the following in all respects :—

Hull april first 18 hundred and 62 my deer ant i set down to inform you That i am usually well i should admire to see you we was all so glad when You come to our House last february we was'nt a looking for you but in You come all of A sudden i go to school now and study my rethmetic and Grammar book i think i lern my grammer considerable Well but the master says how i dont rite Grammatical i shall Be twelve Year old come june i cant rite no more for i haint no more time to—your lovin Nef- u lemucl

AUXILIARIES.

Auxiliary verbs are those which are used in conjugating other verbs. They are, —

PRES. *Do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, must.*
 PAST. *Did, was, had, should, would, might, could, —.*

REM. 1. — *Do, be, have, and will* (when it means to *will*, or to leave property by a *will*) are also used as principal verbs.

REM. 2. — The auxiliary verbs are used to form the modes and tenses of other verbs, and to give peculiar shades of meaning to the forms in which they are used. In the early stages of the language, these verbs were undoubtedly used as principal verbs followed by the infinitive of what now is called the principal verb; as, *may* (to) go; *can* (to) read; *must* (to) sing. The *to* was at length dropped, as it is in case of the infinitives following *bid, dare, feel, see, &c.*; and finally, the infinitive came to be regarded as the principal verb, and that on which it depended became its auxiliary.

REM. 3. — The auxiliaries should be regarded merely as *form-words*, or words used to form the tenses, and to show relations of *time and mode*, as the preposition is used to show relations of *time, place, origin, cause, manner, property, material, &c.* In fact, all words used to show a relation, of whatever nature, are a species of auxiliary. Prepositions aid in converting nouns into an adjective or adverbial use, thus: "She plays *with ease*" = plays *easily*. "The oak *of America*" = The *American* oak. The *relative pronoun*, or the *conjunctive adverb*, is an auxiliary used to form an adjective or an adverb out of a sentence; thus: "The rain washed away the embankment," is an independent sentence; but in the sentence, "The rain *which* (i. e., the rain) *washed away the embankment*, has done much damage elsewhere;" the former sentence, by the aid of *which*, has been converted into an adjective, used to modify *rain*. So if we take the two sentences, "The sun rose;" "The cars left," we may convert the former into an adverb by the auxiliary *when* thus: "*When the sun rose*."

the cars left." In the progress of language, these auxiliaries have increased, and in the same ratio, the inflection of the principal word has diminished. An exact and familiar acquaintance with their various uses is essential to a correct knowledge of language.

REM. 4. — The auxiliaries, as such, have only two tenses; the *present* and the *past*, except *must*, which has no variation. They may be thus represented: —

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARIES.

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
1st Per.	2d Per.	3d Per.	1st Per.	2d Per.	3d Per.
<i>I</i>	<i>Thou</i>	<i>He</i>	<i>We</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>They</i>
<i>Present.</i>	Am	art	is	are	are
	Do	dost	does	do	do
	Have	hast	has	have	have
	Will	wilt	will	will	will
	Shall	shalt	shall	shall	shall
	May	mayst	may	may	may
	Can	canst	can	can	can
	Must	must	must	must	must
<i>Past.</i>	Was	wast	was	were	were
	Did	didst	did	did	did
	Had	hadst	had	had	had
	Would	wouldst	would	would	would
	Should	shouldst	should	should	should
	Might	mightst	might	might	might
	Could	couldst	could	could	could

FORMATION OF TENSES — USES OF THE AUXILIARIES

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

- (1.) *The common form* . . is the first or simple form of the verb; as, *love, lovest, loves.*
- (2.) *The emphatic form* . . prefixes *do, dost, does*, to the first form of the verb; as, *do love, dost love, does love.*
- (3.) *The progressive form* . . prefixes *is, am, art, are*, to the present participle of the verb; as, *is writing, am writing, art writing.*
- (4.) *The passive form* . . . prefixes *is, am, art, are*, to the passive* participle of the verb; as, *is loved, art loved, are loved.*

REM. 1. — *Do* is used primarily for emphasis. It is used without emphasis in interrogative and negative sentences; as, "*Does he write?*" "*He does not tell the truth.*" It takes also at the end of the sentence the place of the principal verb; as, "*I will go if you do*" = *go.*

REM. 2. — *Be*, as an auxiliary, is the pure abstract verb, (Rem. 1, p. 52,) and is used

* The same in form as the past participle, but not in meaning.

to connect the participle, present or passive with the subject. It gives no shading to the meaning of the participle, as it has no meaning to impart. It does what simple inflection would do if it could be employed.

Present Perfect Tense.

- (1.) *The common form* . . prefixes *have, has*, to the past participle of the verb; as, *have loved, has loved, has loved.*
- (2.) *The progressive form* . . prefixes *have been, has been*, to the present participle of the verb; as, *have been writing, has been writing, has been writing.*
- (3.) *The passive form* . . . prefixes *have been, has been*, to the passive participle of the verb; as, *have been loved, has been loved, has been loved.*

REM. — *Have* probably once conveyed the idea of possession, governing an object which was limited by a passive participle; as, "He *has* treasures *discovered*," or, "He *has* (or possesses) *discovered* treasures." It has now lost all idea of possession, and is, in this use, a simple auxiliary; the participle, also, having been changed from a passive, to an active signification; as, "He *has discovered* valuable treasures."

Past Tense.

- (1.) *The common form* . . is the second form of the verb; as, *loved, lovedst.*
- (2.) *The emphatic form* . . prefixes *did, didst*, to the first form of the verb; as, *did love, didst love.*
- (3.) *The progressive form* . . prefixes *was, wast, were*, to the present participle of the verb; as, *was writing, wast writing, were writing.*
- (4.) *The passive form* . . . prefixes *was, wast, were* to the passive participle of the verb; as, *was loved, wast loved, were loved.*

REM. — *Did* is the past of *do*, and has the same uses. The same may be said of *was*, which is the past of *be*.

Past Perfect Tense.

- (1.) *The common form* . . prefixes *had, hadst*, to the past participle; as, *had loved, hadst loved.*
- (2.) *The progressive form* . . prefixes *had been, hadst been*, to the present participle of the verb; as, *had been writing, hadst been writing.*
- (3.) *The passive form* . . . prefixes *had been, hadst been*, to the passive participle of the verb; as, *had been loved, hadst been loved.*

REM. — *Had* is the past of *have*, and has the same uses as the latter.

Future Tense.

- (1.) *The common form* . . prefixes *shall, shalt, will, wilt*, to the first form of the verb; as, *shall love, shalt love, will love, wilt love.*
- (2.) *The progressive form* . . prefixes *shall be, shalt be, will be, wilt be*, to the present participle of the verb; as, *shall be*

writing, will be writing, shalt be writing, wilt be writing.

- (3.) *The passive form . . .* prefixes *shall be, shalt be, will be, wilt be*, to the passive participle of the verb ; as, *shall be loved, shalt be loved, will be loved, wilt be loved.*

• *Future Perfect Tense.*

- (1.) *The common form . .* prefixes *shall have, shalt have, will have, wilt have*, to the perfect participle of the verb ; as, *shall have loved, will have loved, wilt have loved.*
- (2.) *The progressive form .* prefixes *shall have been, will have been, shalt have been, wilt have been*, to the present participle of the verb ; as, *shall have been writing, will have been writing, shalt have been writing, wilt have been writing.*
- (3.) *The passive form . . .* prefixes *shall have been, will have been, shalt have been, wilt have been*, to the passive participle of the verb ; as, *shall have been loved, shalt have been loved, will have been loved, wilt have been loved.*

NOTE. — *Shall* and *will* are used to form the future tenses, and, with *have*, *shall* or *will have*,) to form the future perfect, in the indicative and subjunctive modes ; as, *I shall or will learn, I shall or will have learned ; if I shall or will learn, if I shall or will have learned.*

REM. 1. — *Shall* and *will* have two significations — a *primary* or *original*, and a *secondary* or *derived*. *Shall* denotes, primarily, *obligation* ; as, “ You *shall* do it ” = You are under *obligation* to do it ; this obligation may be urged by the *will* or *determination* of another ; as, “ You are under *obligation* to do it, and I *will*, or *am determined*, that the obligation shall be discharged ; ” that is, “ That you *shall* do it, is my will.” Hence *shall* denotes *obligation*, and implies *determination* and *resolution* at the same time. But that which one is *obliged* to do, whether by necessity or the will of another, is *not new* done ; it is *yet* to be done ; hence a *secondary* idea of *futurity*.

REM. 2. — *Will* denotes, primarily, *volition, inclination, purpose, determination* ; as, “ He *will* go in spite of opposition ” = He is *determined* to go. But that which one *inclines*, or *wills*, or *determines* to do himself, or to have another do, is *not new* done ; it is *yet* to be done ; hence *will* also has a *secondary* idea of *futurity*.

REM. 3. — In the present use of these auxiliaries both these elements appear.

(1.) *Shall* and *will* denote a present *resolution, volition, inclination, determination, promise, or purpose*, with reference to a future act ; as, “ I *shall* write.” “ I *will* write.”

(2.) They denote *simple futurity* ; as, “ I *predict* that he *will* write.” “ It *will* rain to-morrow.” “ I *shall* (contrary to my will) be overtaken.”

REM. 4. — Besides that of the speaker, two relations or parties are necessarily involved in both these cases ; the one who *resolves* or *predicts*, and the one who *acts*. Two cases may arise. (1.) Both parties may be represented by the same person ; as, “ I *resolve* or *determine* that I *will* write ; ” or simply, “ I *will* write.” “ I *predict* or *believe* that I *shall* write ; ” or simply, “ I *shall* write.” “ You *resolve* that you *will* write.” “ You *believe* or *predict* that you *shall* write.” (2.) Both parties may be represented one by one person, and the other by another ; as, “ I *resolve* that you *shall* write ; ” or simply, “ You *shall* write.” “ I *predict* that you *will* write ; ” or simply, “ You *will* write.” “ You *resolve* that I *shall* write ; ” “ You *predict* that I *shall* (not *will*) write.” “ He *resolves* that you *shall* write.” “ He *predicts* that you *will* write.” In interrogative sentences, the same principles prevail, but the *will* or *opinion* of the second person is referred to ; as, “ Shall he write ? ” that is, “ Is it *your will* or *resolution* that he *shall* write ? ” “ Will it rain ? ” that is, “ Is it *your opinion* or *prediction* that it *will* rain ? ”

A careful inspection of these and similar examples will justify the following rules . —

RULE I. *When the person who resolves or predicts is not mentioned, the first person is always understood in affirmative, and the second in interrogative sentences ; as, “ You shall go.” (I will it.) “ Shall he go ? ” (Do you will it?) “ It will rain.” (I predict it.) “ Will it rain ? ” (Do you predict it?)*

RULE II. *Will* should be used when the resolution and the action are attributed to the same person, and *shall* when they are attributed to different persons; "I will go." (I myself resolve.) "Will you go?" (Do you yourself resolve?) "He will go." (He himself resolves.) "He shall go." (I resolve.) "They have determined that you shall go." "Shall he go?" (Do you resolve?)

RULE III. *Shall* should be used when the prediction and the action are both attributed to the same person, or in any case, provided the action be attributed to the first person; and *will* should be used when the prediction and the action (except in the case of the first person) are attributed to different persons; as, "You will be promoted." (I predict it.) "I shall teach, or be a teacher." (I, he, you, or they, predict it.) "Will he teach?" (Do you predict it?) "Will it rain?" (Do you think so?) "It will rain." (I think so.)

NOTE. — These rules embody all the principal uses of *shall* and *will*. But there are some exceptions and anomalous cases, which will easily be recognized.

In the following sentences, do SHALL, and WILL resolve or predict? —

I will go to the party. You shall not leave the room. It will be a sad day for him. He shall do as I tell him. He will come to see me. I shall go to see my sister. I shall see him to-morrow. In the day that thou eatest thereof thou shalt surely die. Thou wilt show me the path of life. He will be elected. Perhaps I shall find my book. I will fear no evil. I will dwell in the house of my God forever. Shall I go to ride? Will she do it? In spite of all your objections, I will do it. The sun will shine. The clock will strike. Shall you go to the lecture? When will the time come? Will he do well?

Correct the following examples by giving the right use of shall and will: —

I will receive a letter when my brother comes. If they make the changes, I do not think I will like them. Will we have a good time, if we go? Perhaps you shall find the purse. I will be unhappy if you do not come. I will be afraid if it is dark. Surely goodness and mercy shall follow me, and I will dwell in the house of the Lord forever. I resolve that he will return with me. I will be obliged to you. I will be punished. What sorrow will I have to endure! The moon shall give her light. Will I write? He is resolved that Mary will go. If we examine the subject, we will perceive the error. I will suffer from poverty; nobody shall help me. When shall you go with me? Where will I leave you?

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

- (1.) *The common form* . prefixes *may, mayst, can, canst, must, to* the first form of the verb; as, *may love, mayst love, can love, canst love, must love.*
- (2.) *The progressive form* . prefixes *may be, mayst be, can be, canst be, must be, to* the present participle of the verb; as, *may be writing, mayst be writing, can be writing, canst be writing, must be writing.*
- (3.) *The passive form* . . prefixes *may be, mayst be, can be, canst be, must be, to* the passive participle of the verb; as, *may be loved, mayst be loved, can be loved, canst be loved, must be loved.*

Present Perfect Tense.

- (1.) *The common form* . . prefixes *may have, mayst have, can have, canst have, must have, to* the past participle of the verb; as, *may have loved, mayst have loved, can have loved, canst have loved, must have loved.*

- (2.) *The progressive form* prefixes *may have been, mayst have been, can have been, canst have been, must have been*, to the present participle of the verb; as, *may have been writing, mayst have been writing, can have been writing, canst have been writing, must have been writing*.
- (3.) *The passive form . . .* prefixes *may have been, mayst have been, can have been, canst have been, must have been*, to the passive participle of the verb; as, *may have been loved, mayst have been loved, can have been loved, canst have been loved, must have been loved*.

Past Tense.

- (1.) *The common form . .* prefixes *might, mightst, could, couldst, should, shouldst, would, wouldst*, to the first form of the verb; as, *might love, mightst love, could love, couldst love, would love, wouldst love, should love, shouldst love*.
- (2.) *The progressive form .* prefixes *might be, mightst be, could be, couldst be, would be, wouldst be, should be, shouldst be*, to the present participle of the verb; as, *might be writing, mightst be writing, could be writing, couldst be writing, would be writing, wouldst be writing, should be writing, shouldst be writing*.
- (3.) *The passive form . . .* prefixes *might be, mightst be, could be, couldst be, would be, wouldst be, should be, shouldst be*, to the passive participle of the verb; as, *might be loved, mightst be loved, could be loved, couldst be loved, would be loved, wouldst be loved, should be loved, shouldst be loved*.

Past Perfect Tense.

- (1.) *The common form . .* prefixes *might have, mightst have, could have, couldst have, should have, shouldst have, would have, wouldst have*, to the past participle of the verb; as, *might have loved, mightst have loved, could have loved, couldst have loved, would have loved, wouldst have loved, should have loved, shouldst have loved*.
- (2.) *The progressive form .* prefixes *might have been, mightst have been, could have been, couldst have been, would have been, wouldst have been, should have been, shouldst have been*, to the present participle of the verb as, *might have been writing, mightst have been writing, could have been writing, couldst have been writing, would have been writing, wouldst have been writing, should have been writing, shouldst have been writing*.
- (3.) *The passive form . .* prefixes *might have been, mightst have been, could have been, couldst have been, would have been, wouldst have been, should have been, shouldst have been*, to the passive participle of the verb; as, *might have been loved, mightst have been loved, could have been loved, couldst have been loved, would have been loved, wouldst have been loved, should have been loved, shouldst have been loved*.

REM. 1. — *May* denotes *power* imparted by *others*, that is, *liberty* or *permission*; *can* denotes *power* or *ability*, belonging to *one's self*; *must* denotes *necessity*.

REM. 2. — *May* sometimes denotes *possibility*; as, "It *may* rain;" "He *may* have written;" sometimes a *petition*; as, "*May* it please you."

REM. 3. — In the present perfect these auxiliaries are joined with *have*; as, "*May, can, or must have written*;" and then the entire form denotes the present possibility, &c., that a past act was performed; as, "I *may have spoken*" = It is (now) possible that I spoke (yesterday.)

REM. 1. — *Should* and *would* have the same general meaning as the present tenses *shall* and *will*, and in general they are to the past tenses what *shall* and *will* are to the present or future; as, "I think I *shall* write." "I thought I *should* write." "I think he *will* go." "I thought he *would* go." (See Rules for the use of *shall* and *will*.)

REM. 2. — *Might* and *could* also express in past time the same general meaning as in the present; as, "I know I *may* or *can* go." "I knew I *might* or *could* go."

REM. 3. — *Might, could, should, and would* are used in conditional sentences, *might* in one clause answering to *could* in the other, when *power, ability, or inclination* is implied; as, "He *might* sing, if he *could* or *would*." So, "He *could* sing, if he *would*." "He *would* sing, if he *could*." Sometimes the conditional clause is omitted. "He *might* write." "He *could* write." "He *would* write." In all these examples a *present possibility, liberty, &c.*, is referred to. When *past time* is referred to, we use the *past perfect* tense; as, "He *might have written, if he would*" (have written.)

REM. 4. — *Might, could, would, and should*, combined with *have*, form the past perfect tense. It is the past perfect only in form. It is equivalent to the past; as, "He *could have written*" = He *was* able to write.

Subjunctive Mode.

With the exception of the distinctive form in the present and past, the subjunctive mode is the same in form as the indicative or potential, with *if, unless, though, &c.*, prefixed; as, "*If I love.*" "*If I may love.*"

Imperative Mode.

The imperative mode has but one tense, the *present*, which is used generally without the subject expressed, and in all the four forms of the verb as, *Study; be thou studying; be thou loved; do write.*

Infinitive Mode.

The infinitive mode has two tenses — the *present* and the *perfect*. The *present* is used in the *common*, the *progressive*, and the *passive* form of the verb, and is formed by prefixing *to* to the simple verb for the common form, *to be* to the present participle for the progressive form, and *to be* to the passive participle for the passive form; as, *to write; to be writing; to be written.*

The *perfect* is used in the *common*, the *progressive*, and the *passive* forms of the verb, and is formed by prefixing *to have* to the past participle of the verb for the common form, *to have been* to the present participle for the progressive form, and *to have been* to the passive participle for the passive form, as, *to have written; to have been writing; to have been written.*

Participles.

The *present* participle is formed by adding *ing* to the first form of the verb, (Rule III. p. 16;) as, *writing*.

The *past* participle is formed for regular verbs by adding *ed* to the simple verb, (Rule III. p. 16;) as, *honored*.

The *perfect* participle is formed by prefixing *having* to the past participle of the verb for the common form, *having been* to the present participle for the progressive form, and *having been* to the passive participle for the passive form; as, *having written*; *having been writing*; *having been written*.

NUMBER AND PERSON OF THE VERB.

The number and person of the verb are properties which show its agreement with the subject. Like the subject, the verb has two numbers and three persons.

REM. 1. — The *first* person singular, and the *first*, *second*, and *third* persons plural, of the present tense indicative, in all verbs, (*am*, *are*, *was*, *were*, excepted,) are alike. The *second* person singular is like the first, except in the solemn or scriptural style, when it is formed by adding *st*, or *est*, to the first person; as, "Thou *lovest* me not." The *third* person singular is formed from the first, by adding *s*, or *es*: in the scriptural style it ends in *eth*; as, "He *goeth*." Verbs ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i*, and add *es*, to form the third person singular; as, *try*, *tries*.

REM. 2. — By a figure of enallage, the second person plural of the pronoun and verb is substituted, in conversational and familiar style, for the second person singular; as, "Hubert, *you are* sad" = Hubert, *thou art* sad

REM. 3. — The imperative mode has usually only the second person; as, "Go thou." In some languages, the imperative has also a form for the first person plural, and third person singular and plural. A few examples seem to occur in English; as, "Rise, thy sons." "Be it decreed." Most of these cases, however, can be explained by supplying an ellipsis; as, "Let thy sons rise." "Let it be decreed."

EXERCISE.

Determine the number and person of each of the following subjects, and then give the number and person of each of the following verbs:—

Mary sings. George will fly his kite. I know it. She would go. Henry recites well. Who are they? The birds picked up the crumbs. Hear the rain. When shall you go? The sun does not shine. The violets bloom. Roses will fade. Time flies on. Books are full of instruction. You may have your choice. What shall I give her? Cultivate a love for all that is beautiful.

CONJUGATION.

The *conjugation* of a verb is the regular arrangement of its several modes, tenses, voices, numbers, and persons

REM. 1. — The only tenses which change their termination are the *present* and *past*; as, sit, *sittest*, sits; sat, *satest*; tarry, *tarriest*, tarries; *tarried*, *tarriedst*. All other changes are made by means of auxiliaries.

REM. 2. — In adding *s* or *es*, observe the same rules as in the formation of the plural of nouns; as, play, *plays*; fly, *flies*; go, *goes*. So, also, observe the rules (p. 15) for the changes of the radical verb; as, drop, *dropped*, (Rule I. p. 15;) reply, *replied*, (Rule III. p. 15.)

The *principal parts* of a verb are the *present indicative*, the *past indicative*, and the *past participle*.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Explain,	explained,	explained.
Rely,	relied,	relied.
Write,	wrote,	written.
Shine,	shone,	shone.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.

EXERCISES.

Give the principal parts of the following verbs:—

Sail, smile, see, shut, close, open, burn, glaze, gild, turn, try, reform, renew, take, leave, make, build, hope, fold, alter, correct.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *TO BE*.

NOTE. — Let the pupil study the "Formation of the Tenses" (p. 72,) as he learns the conjugation of the different modes and tenses.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am,	We are,
2. Thou art,	You are,
3. He is;	They are

Present Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have been,	We have been,
2. Thou hast been,	You have been,
3. He has been;	They have been.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I was,
2. Thou wast,
3. He was;

Plural.

- We were,
You were,
They were.

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I had been,
2. Thou hadst been,
3. He had been;

Plural.

- We had been,
You had been,
They had been.

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall or will be,
2. Thou shalt or wilt be,
3. He shall or will be;

Plural.

- We shall or will be,
You shall or will be,
They shall or will be.

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall or will have been,
2. Thou shalt or wilt have been,
3. He shall or will have been;

Plural.

- We shall or will have been,
You shall or will have been,
They shall or will have been.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may be,*
2. Thou mayst be,
3. He may be;

Plural.

- We may be,
You may be,
They may be.

Present Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I may have been,
2. Thou mayst have been.
3. He may have been;

Plural.

- We may have been.
You may have been,
They may have been.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I might be,
2. Thou mightst be,
3. He might be;

Plural.

- We might be,
You might be,
They might be.

* Conjugate with each auxiliary, or with all united, thus: I may, can, or must be

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I might have been,
2. Thou mightst have been,
3. He might have been ;

Plural.

- We might have been,
 You might have been,
 They might have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I am,
2. If thou art,
3. If he is ;

Plural.

- If we are,
 If you are,
 If they are.

Present Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. If I have been,
2. If thou hast been,
3. If he has been ;

Plural.

- If we have been,
 If you have been,
 If they have been.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. If I was,
2. If thou wast,
3. If he was ;

Plural.

- If we were,
 If you were,
 If they were.

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. If I had been,
2. If thou hadst been,
3. If he had been ;

Plural.

- If we had been,
 If you had been,
 If they had been.

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. If I shall or will be,
2. If thou shalt or wilt be,
3. If he shall or will be ;

Plural.

- If we shall or will be,
 If you shall or will be,
 If they shall or will be.

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. If I shall or will have been,
2. If thou shalt or wilt have been,
3. If he shall or will have been ;

Plural.

- If we shall or will have been,
 If you shall or will have been,
 If they shall or will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Subjunctive form.*)

NOTE. — Besides the forms already given, the subjunctive has another in the present and past, peculiar to itself.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I be,	If we be,
2. If thou be,	If you be,
3. If he be ;	If they be.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I were,	If we were,
2. If thou wert,	If you were,
3. If he were ;	If they were.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Be, or Be thou ;	Be ye or you.

INFINITIVE MODE.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	To be.
<i>Present Perfect.</i>	To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i> Being.	<i>Past.</i> Been.
<i>Perfect.</i> Having been.	

SYNOPSIS is a short view of the verb, showing its forms through the modes and tenses in a single number and person, thus : In the first person singular, we have, *IND. Pres.* I am ; *Pres. Per.* I have been ; *Past,* I was ; *Past Perf.* I had been ; *Fut.* I shall be ; *Fut. Per.* I shall have been. *Por. Pres.* I may be ; *Pres. Per.* I may have been ; *Past,* I might be ; *Past Perf.* I might have been. *SUB. Pres.* If I am, &c.

EXERCISE.

In what mode and tense are the following ? —

I am. He has been. If I were. You can be. He might be. To have been. They were. He will have been. You might be. She had been. You will be. To be. I must have been. Thou art. If he be. If you are. They might have been. We were. I had been. Thou wast. He is.

Give a synopsis of TO BE, in the IND. second person singular, sec. plur., first per. plur., sec. per. plur., third per. plur. POR. third per. sing., sec. per. plur., third per. plur. SUB. sec. per. sing., sec. per. plur., third per. plur., first per. plur.

CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB *to LOVE*.

ACTIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I love,
2. Thou lovest.
3. He loves;

Plural.

- We love,
You love,
They love.

Present Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I have loved,
2. Thou hast loved,
3. He has loved;

Plural.

- We have loved,
You have loved,
They have loved.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I loved,
2. Thou lovedst,
3. He loved;

Plural.

- We loved,
You loved,
They loved.

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I had loved,
2. Thou hadst loved,
3. He had loved;

Plural.

- We had loved,
You had loved,
They had loved

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall or will love,
2. Thou shalt or wilt love,
3. He shall or will love;

Plural.

- We shall or will love,
You shall or will love,
They shall or will love.

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall or will have loved,
2. Thou shalt or wilt have loved,
3. He shall or will have loved;

Plural.

- We shall or will have loved,
You shall or will have loved,
They shall or will have loved

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may love,
2. Thou mayst love,
3. He may love;

Plural.

- We may love,
You may love,
They may love

Present Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I may have loved,	We may have loved,
2. Thou mayst have loved,	You may have loved,
3. He may have loved;	They may have loved.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I might love,	We might love,
2. Thou mightst love,	You might love,
3. He might love;	They might love.

Past Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I might have loved,	We might have loved,
2. Thou mightst have loved,	You might have loved,
3. He might have loved;	They might have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Regular form.*)

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I love,	If we love,
2. If thou lovest,	If you love,
3. If he loves;	If they love.

Present Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I have loved,	If we have loved,
2. If thou hast loved,	If you have loved,
3. If he has loved;	If they have loved.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I loved,	If we loved,
2. If thou lovedst,	If you loved,
3. If he loved;	If they loved.

Past Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I had loved,	If we had loved,
2. If thou hadst loved,	If you had loved,
3. If he had loved;	If they had loved.

Future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I shall or will love,	If we shall or will love
2. If thou shalt or wilt love,	If you shall or will love,
3. If he shall or will love;	If they shall or will love.

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. If I shall or will have loved,
2. If thou shalt or wilt have loved,
3. If he shall or will have loved;

Plural.

- If we shall or will have loved,
If you shall or will have loved,
If they shall or will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Subjunctive form.**)

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I love,
2. If thou love,
3. If he love;

Plural.

- If we love,
If you love,
If they love.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular.

Love, or Love thou;

Plural.

Love, or Love you.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present. To love.

Perfect. To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Loving.

Perfect. Having loved.

Past. Loved.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I am loved,
2. Thou art loved,
3. He is loved;

Plural.

- We are loved,
You are loved,
They are loved.

Present Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I have been loved,
2. Thou hast been loved,
3. He has been loved;

Plural.

- We have been loved,
You have been loved,
They have been loved.

* See Exam. 2, page 58.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I was loved,
2. Thou wast loved,
3. He was loved ;

Plural.

- We were loved,
You were loved,
They were loved.

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved,
3. He had been loved ;

Plural.

- We had been loved,
You had been loved,
They had been loved.

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall or will be loved,
2. Thou shalt or wilt be loved,
3. He shall or will be loved ;

Plural.

- We shall or will be loved,
You shall or will be loved,
They shall or will be loved.

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall or will have been loved,
2. Thou shalt or wilt have been loved,
3. He shall or will have been loved ;

Plural.

- We shall or will have been loved,
You shall or will have been loved,
They shall or will have been loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may be loved,
2. Thou mayst be loved,
3. He may be loved ;

Plural.

- We may be loved,
You may be loved,
They may be loved.

Present Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I may have been loved,
2. Thou mayst have been loved,
3. He may have been loved ;

Plural.

- We may have been loved,
You may have been loved,
They may have been loved.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I might be loved,
2. Thou mightst be loved,
3. He might be loved ;

Plural.

- We might be loved,
You might be loved,
They might be loved.

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I might have been loved,
2. Thou mightst have been loved,
3. He might have been loved ;

Plural.

- We might have been loved,
You might have been loved,
They might have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Regular form.*)

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I am loved,
2. If thou art loved,
3. If he is loved ;

Plural.

- If we are loved,
If you are loved,
If they are loved.

Present Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. If I have been loved,
2. If thou hast been loved,
3. If he has been loved ;

Plural.

- If we have been loved,
If you have been loved,
If they have been loved.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. If I was loved,
2. If thou wast loved,
3. If he was loved ;

Plural.

- If we were loved,
If you were loved,
If they were loved.

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. If I had been loved,
2. If thou hadst been loved,
3. If he had been loved ;

Plural.

- If we had been loved,
If you had been loved,
If they had been loved.

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. If I shall or will be loved,
2. If thou shalt or wilt be loved,
3. If he shall or will be loved ;

Plural.

- If we shall or will be loved,
If you shall or will be loved,
If they shall or will be loved.

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.

1. If I shall or will have been loved,
2. If thou shalt or wilt have been loved,
3. If he shall or will have been loved ;

Plural.

- If we shall or will have been loved.
If you shall or will have been loved
If they shall or will have been loved

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Subjunctive form.*)

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I be loved,
2. If thou be loved,
3. If he be loved ;

Plural.

- If we be loved,
If you be loved,
If they be loved.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I were loved,	If we were loved,
2. If thou wert loved,	If you were loved,
3. If he were loved ;	If they were loved.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Be loved, or Be thou loved ;	Be loved, or Be you loved.

INFINITIVE MODE.

<i>Present.</i> To be loved.	<i>Perfect.</i> To have been loved.
------------------------------	-------------------------------------

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i> Being loved.	<i>Past (passive.)</i> Loved.
<i>Perfect.</i> Having been loved.	

INTERROGATIVE AND NEGATIVE FORMS.

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively* in the indicative and potential modes, by placing the subject after it, or after the first auxiliary ; as, IND. Do I love ? Have I loved ? Did I love ? Had I loved ? Shall I love ? Shall I have loved ? POT. Can I love ? Can I have loved ? &c.

A verb is conjugated *negatively*, by placing the adverb *not* after it, or after the first auxiliary ; but the negative adverb should be placed before the infinitive and participles ; as, IND. I love not, or I do not love. I have not loved. I loved not, or I did not love. I had not loved, &c. INF. Not to love. Not to have loved. PART. Not loving. Not loved. Not having loved.

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively*, and *negatively*, in the *indicative* and *potential* modes, by placing the *subject*, and the adverb *not*, after the verb, or after the first auxiliary as, Love I not ? or Do I not love ? Have I not loved ? Did I not love ? Had I not loved ? &c.

EXERCISES.

Tell the mode, tense, voice, number, and person of the following. —

She has loved. I might love. We had loved. We had been loved. He may have loved. If I be loved. I love. He will love. He shall have loved. I have loved. They shall have loved. She is loved. We may be loved. You might have been loved. If I love. If they love. They may love. We will love. I had loved. Thou hast loved. Thou wilt have loved. I love. Thou art loved. He was loved. She will have been loved.

Write or repeat a full conjugation of the following verbs: —

Believe, betray, defy, persuade, resolve, determine.

Conjugate two of the above verbs interrogatively, two of them negatively, and two of them interrogatively and negatively.

Give a synopsis of either of the above verbs in either form, in the first, second, or third person.

SYNOPSIS — PROGRESSIVE FORM. — VERB READ.

NOTE. — The progressive form is the verb *to be* joined to the present participle. The pupil should be careful not to mistake this for the passive form, which is the verb *to be* joined to the *passive participle*.

I am reading, I have been reading, I was reading, I had been reading, I shall be reading, I shall have been reading. I may be reading, I may have been reading, I might be reading, I might have been reading. If I am or be reading, if I have been reading, if I was or were reading, if I had been reading, if I shall be reading, if I shall have been reading. Be thou reading. To be reading, to have been reading. Reading, having been reading.

EXERCISE.

Write or repeat the full conjugation of write, play, sing, think, in the progressive form.

Give a synopsis of either of the above verbs in the second and third persons, singular and plural.

Tell the difference between the progressive and passive forms. (See note above.)

Correct the following examples in all respects: —

i is going down sullur and will be lookin up some turnups and pertaties for dinner. Mary did nothin for rufus said he seen her. The steamboat come a puffin along faster nor the fishes would keep out er the way ont; im in a quandary whether the steamboat or Rail road goes fastest. indian Rubers keeps out Snow, mud and Reign. its the Erly bird what ketches the wurm.

SYNOPSIS — EMPHATIC FORM.

In the emphatic form the auxiliary *do* is added to the simple verb for the present, and *did* for the past. It is found only in the indicative and imperative modes.

Indicative. I do love, I did love. *Imperative.* Do thou love.

FORMS FOR EACH DIVISION OF TIME COMBINED THE VERB TO MAKE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

	1st Sing. I	2d Sing. Thou	3d Sing. He, She, It,
1. Indef.	make,	makest,	makes.
2. Prog. incomp.	am making,	art making,	is making.
3. Comp.	have made,	hast made,	has made.
4. Prog. comp.	have been making,	hast been making,	has been making
5. Ind. emp.	do make,	doest make,	does make.
6. Pas. ind.	am made,	art made,	is made.
7. Pas. prog.	—,	—,	is making.*
8. Pas. comp.	have been made,	hast been made,	has been made.

	1st Plur. We	2d Plur. Ye or You	3d Plur. They
1. Indef.	make,	make,	make.
2. Prog. incomp.	are making,	are making,	are making.
3. Comp.	have made,	have made,	have made.
4. Prog. comp.	have been making,	have been making,	have been making.
5. Ind. emp.	do make,	do make,	do make.
6. Pas. ind.	are made,	are made,	are made.
7. Pas. prog.	—,	—,	are making.
8. Pas. comp.	have been made,	have been made,	have been made.

Past Tense.

	1st Sing. I	2d Sing. Thou	3d Sing. He, She, It,
1. Indef.	made,	madest,	made.
2. Prog. incomp.	was making,	wast making,	was making.
3. Comp.	had made,	hadst made,	had made.
4. Prog. comp.	had been making,	hadst been making	had been making
5. Ind. emp.	did make,	didst make,	did make.
6. Pas. ind.	was made,	wast made,	was made.
7. Pas. prog.	—,	—,	was making.
8. Pas. comp.	had been made,	hadst been made,	had been made.

	1st Plur. We	2d Plur. Ye or You	3d Plur. They
1. Indef.	made,	made,	made.
2. Prog. incomp.	were making,	were making,	were making.
3. Comp.	had made,	had made,	had made.
4. Prog. comp.	had been making,	had been making,	had been making.
5. Ind. emp.	did make,	did make,	did make.
6. Pas. ind.	were made,	were made,	were made.
7. Pas. prog.	—,	—,	were making.
8. Pas. comp.	had been made,	had been made,	had been made.

* The subject is usually some inanimate object; as, "An effort is making." There may be still another form — the pas. prog. comp.; as, "An effort has been making."

Future Tense.

1st Sing.		2d Sing.	3d Sing.
I		Thou	He, She, It,
1 Indef.	will make,	will make,	will make.
2 Prog. incomp.	will be making,	will be making,	will be making.
3 Comp.	will have made,	will have made,	will have made.
4 Prog. comp.	{ will have been making,	{ will have been making.	{ will have been making.
5 Ind. emp.	—	—	—
6 Pas. ind.	will be made,	will be made,	will be made.
7 Pas. prog.	—	—	will be making.
8 Pas. comp.	will have been made,	will have been made.	will have been made.

1st Plur.		2d Plur.	3d Plur.
We		You or You	They
1 Indef.	will make,	will make,	will make.
2 Prog. incomp.	will be making,	will be making,	will be making.
3 Comp.	will have made,	will have made,	will have made.
4 Prog. comp.	{ will have been making,	{ will have been making.	{ will have been making.
5 Ind. emp.	—	—	—
6 Pas. ind.	will be made,	will be made,	will be made.
7 Pas. prog.	—	—	will be making.
8 Pas. comp.	will have been made,	will have been made,	will have been made.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

An *irregular* verb is one which does not form its past tense and past participle by adding *ed* ; as, *see, saw, seen, write, wrote, written*.

REM. — The following list contains the principal parts of the irregular verbs. Those verbs which are marked R. have also the regular forms and those which are *Italicized* are either obsolete or are becoming so : —

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
Abide,	Abode,	Abode.
Am,	Was,	Been.
Arise,	Arose,	Arisen.
Awake,	Awoke, R.	Awaked.
Bear, (to bring forth,)	Bore, <i>bare</i> ,	Born.
Bear, (to carry,)	Bore, <i>bare</i> ,	Borne.
Beat,	Beat,	Beaten, beat.
Begin,	Began,	Begun.
Ben't,	Bend, R.	Beant.
Bereave,	Bereft, R.	Bereft, R.
Beseech,	Besought,	Besought.
Bid,	Bid, bade,	Bidden, bid.
Bind, Un-,	Bound,	Bound.
Bite,	Bit,	Bitten, bit
Bleed,	Bled,	Bled.
Blow,	Blew,	Blown.
Break,	Broke, <i>braks</i> ,	Broken, <i>broks</i> .
Breed,	Bred,	Bred.
Bring,	Brought,	Brought.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participles.</i>
Build, <i>Re-</i> ,	Built, <i>R.</i> —	Built.
Burn,	Burnt, <i>R.</i>	Burnt, <i>R.</i>
Burst,	Burst,	Burst.
Buy,	Bought,	Bought.
Cast,	Cast,	Cast.
Catch,	Caught, <i>R.</i>	Caught, <i>R.</i>
Chide,	Chid,	Chidden, <i>chid.</i>
Choose,	Chose,	Chosen.
Cleave, (<i>to adhere,</i>)	Cleaved, <i>clave,</i>	Cleaved.
Cleave, (<i>to split,</i>)	Clove, cleft, <i>clave,</i>	Cleft, <i>cloven, R.</i>
Cling,	Clung,	Clung.
Clothe,	Clad, <i>R.</i>	Clad, <i>R.</i>
Come, <i>Be-</i> ,	Came,	Come.
Cost,	Cost,	Cost.
Creep,	Crept,	Crept.
Crow,	Crew, <i>R.</i>	Crowed.
Cut,	Cut,	Cut.
Dare, (<i>to venture,</i>)	Durst,	Dared.
Dare (<i>to challenge</i>) is <i>R.</i>	Dared,	Dared.
Deal,	Dealt, <i>R.</i>	Dealt, <i>R.</i>
Dig,	Dug, <i>R.</i>	Dug, <i>R.</i>
Do, <i>Mis-, Un-</i> ,	Did,	Done.
Draw,	Drew,	Drawn.
Dream,	Dreamt, <i>R.</i>	Dreamt, <i>R.</i>
Drink,	Drank,	Drunk, drank
Drive,	Drove,	Driven.
Dwell,	Dwelt, <i>R.</i>	Dwelt, <i>R.</i>
Eat,	Ate, eat,	Eaten.
Fall, <i>Be-</i> ,	Fell,	Fallen.
Feed,	Fed,	Fed.
Feel,	Felt,	Felt.
Fight,	Fought,	Fought.
Find,	Found.	Found.
Fliee.	Fled.	Fled.
Fling.	Flung,	Flung.
Fly.	Flew.	Flown.
Forbear,	Forbore,	Forborne.
Forget,	Forgot.	Forgotten, forgot.
Forsake,	Forsook,	Forsaken.
Freeze,	Froze,	Frozen.
Freight,	Freighted,	Fraught, <i>R.</i>
Get, <i>Be- For-</i>	Got.	Got, gotten.
Gild,	Gilt, <i>R.</i>	Gilt, <i>R.</i>
Gird, <i>Be- En-</i>	Girt, <i>R.</i>	Girt, <i>R.</i>
Give, <i>For- Mis-</i>	Gave	Given.
Go.	Went.	Gone.
Grave, <i>En-</i>	Graved.	Graven, <i>R.</i>
Grind.	Ground.	Ground.
Grow,	Grew,	Grown.
Hang,	Hung,	Hung.*
Have,	Had,	Had.
Hear,	Heard,	Heard.
Heave,	Hove, <i>R.</i>	Hoven, <i>R.</i>
Hew,	Hewed,	Hewn, <i>R.</i>
Hide,	Hid,	Hidden, hid
Hit,	Hit,	Hit.

* Hang, to take away life by hanging, is regular

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Hold, <i>Be-, With-,</i>	Held,	Held, <i>holden.</i>
Hurt,	Hurt,	Hurt.
Keep,	Kept,	Kept.
Kneel,	Knelt, <i>n.</i>	Knelt, <i>n.</i>
Knit,	Knit, <i>n.</i>	Knit, <i>n.</i>
Know,	Knew,	Known.
Lade, <i>to load,*</i>	Laded,	Laden.
Lay,	Laid,	Laid.
Lead, <i>Mis-,</i>	Led,	Led.
Leave,	Left,	Left.
Lend,	Lent,	Lent.
Let,	Let,	Let.
Lie, <i>(to recline,)</i>	Lay,	Lain.
Light,	Lit, <i>n.</i>	Lit, <i>n.</i>
Load,	Loaded,	Laden, <i>n.</i>
Lose,	Lost,	Lost.
Make,	Made,	Made.
Mean,	Meant,	Meant.
Meet,	Met,	Met.
Mow,	Mowed,	Mown, <i>n.</i>
Pay, <i>Re-,</i>	Paid,	Paid.
Pen, <i>(to enclose,)</i>	Pent, <i>n.</i>	Pent, <i>n.</i>
Put,	Put,	Put.
Quit,	Quit, <i>n.</i>	Quit, <i>n.</i>
Read,	Read,	Read.
Rend,	Rent,	Rent.
Rid,	Rid,	Rid.
Ride,	Rode, <i>rid,</i>	Ridden, <i>rid.</i>
Ring,	Rang, <i>rung,</i>	Rung.
Rise, <i>A-,</i>	Rose,	Risen.
Rive,	Rived,	Riven, <i>n.</i>
Rot,	Rotted,	Rotten, <i>n.</i>
Run,	Ran, <i>run,</i>	Run.
Saw,	Sawed,	Sawn, <i>n.</i>
Say,	Said,	Said.
See,	Saw,	Seen.
Seek,	Sought,	Sought.
Seeke,	Sod, <i>n.</i>	Sodden, <i>n.</i>
Sell,	Sold,	Sold.
Send,	Sent,	Sent.
Set, <i>Be-,</i>	Set,	Set.
Shake,	Shook,	Shaken.
Shape, <i>Mis-,</i>	Shaped,	Shapen, <i>n.</i>
Shave,	Shaved,	Shaven, <i>n.</i>
Shear,	Sheared,	Shorn, <i>n.</i>
Shed,	Shed,	Shed.
Shine,	Shone, <i>n.</i>	Shone, <i>n.</i>
Shoe,	Shod,	Shod.
Shoot,	Shot,	Shot.
Show,	Showed,	Shown.
Shred,	Shred,	Shred.
Shrink	Shrunk, <i>ahsank,</i>	Shrunk.
Shut,	Shut,	Shut.
Sing,	Sang, <i>sung,</i>	Sung.
Sink,	Sunk, <i>sank,</i>	Sunk, <i>n.</i>
Sit,	Sat,	Sat.

* Lade, to dip, is regular.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participles.</i>
Slay,	Slew,	Slain.
Sleep,	Slept,	Slept.
Slide,	Slid,	Slidden, slid.
Sling,	Slung, slang,	Slung.
Stink,	Stunk,	Stunk.
Slit,	Slit,	Slit, <i>n.</i>
Smite,	Smote,	Smitten, smit.
Sow, (<i>to scatter</i>),	Sowed,	Sown, <i>n.</i>
Speak, <i>Be-</i> ,	Spoke, <i>spoke</i> ,	Spoken.
Speed,	Sped,	Sped.
Spell,	Spelt, <i>n.</i>	Spelt, <i>n.</i>
Spend, <i>Mis-</i> ,	Spent,	Spent.
Spill,	Spilt, <i>n.</i>	Spilt, <i>n.</i>
Spin,	Spun, <i>spun</i> ,	Spun.
Spit, <i>Be-</i> ,	Spit, <i>spat</i> ,	Spit.
Split,	Spilt,	Spilt.
Spread, <i>Be-</i> ,	Spread,	Spread.
Spring,	Sprang, sprung,	Sprung.
Stand, <i>Wish</i> , &c.,	Stood,	Stood.
Steal,	Stole,	Stolen.
Stick,	Stuck,	Stuck.
Sting,	Stung,	Stung.
Stride,	Stroke, strid,	Stridden, strid.
Strike,	Struck,	Struck, stricken
String,	Strung,	Strung.
Strive,	Strove,	Striven.
Strow, or Strew, <i>Be-</i> ,	Strowed or strewed,	Strown, strewn, <i>n.</i>
Swear,	Swore, <i>swore</i> ,	Sworn.
Sweat,	Sweat, <i>n.</i>	Sweat, <i>n.</i>
Sweep,	Swept,	Swept.
Swell,	Swelled,	Swollen, <i>n.</i>
Swim,	Swam, swum,	Swam.
Swing,	Swung,	Swung.
Take, <i>Be</i> , &c.,	Took,	Taken.
Teach, <i>Mis</i> , <i>Be</i> , .	Taught,	Taught.
Tear,	Tore, <i>tore</i> ,	Torn.
Tell,	Told,	Told.
Think, <i>Be-</i> ,	Thought,	Thought.
Thrive,	Throve, <i>n.</i>	Thriven, <i>n.</i>
Throw,	Threw,	Thrown.
Thrust,	Thrust,	Thrust.
Tread,	Trod,	Trodden, trod.
Wax,	Waxed,	Waxed, <i>n.</i>
Wear,	Wore,	Worn.
Weave,	Wove,	Woven.
Weep,	Wept,	Wept.
Wet,	Wet, <i>n.</i>	Wet, <i>n.</i>
Whet,	Whet, <i>n.</i>	Whet, <i>n.</i>
Win,	Won,	Won.
Wind,	Wound, <i>n.</i>	Wound.
Work,	Wrought, <i>n.</i>	Wrought, <i>n.</i>
Wring,	Wrung, <i>n.</i>	Wrung.
Write,	Wrote,	Written.

EXERCISES.

Give the past, and past participle of teach, sing, write, read, hurt, sit, arise, take, beat, tell, &c., &c.

Give the present and past for the following past participles: Thrown, sworn, swum, built, spoken, stolen, &c., &c.

Correct the following examples:—

The blossoms have fell from the trees. Mary come to school in haste. Sarah's exercise is wrote badly. The thief stoled the money and telled a falsehood about it. The lake is froze hard. Charles has took the wrong course. The bell ringed loud. The soldiers fit bravely. She did not git the premium. The exercise is writt badly. James has not spoke the truth. A sad misfortune has befall him. The carriage was drawed by four horses. Being weary I laid down and ris much refreshed. The ball was throwed too high. I see the soldiers when they come. The wind has blowed the fruit from the trees, and broke the branches. He sit down upon the bank. The cattle were drove to pasture. After he had strove many times he wined the prize. The bee stinged her badly. He has took my knife. The sky has wore a cloudy aspect for several days. She singed the song well. The cars have ran off the track. She has weaved the cloth beautifully. Who teched him grammar? These apples have growed very fast. He clinged to the mast. He give me some money. Anna stringed the beads quickly. The vessel has hove in sight. She springed a leak. The stone smit him in the face. The river has overflown its banks.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Defective verbs are those in which some of the principal parts are wanting.

They are *may*, *can*, *shall*, and *will*, which have the past tense, but no participles; *must* and *ought*, which have neither a past tense nor participles; *quoth*, which has neither a present tense nor participles.

REM. 1.—When *must* refers to past time, it is used in the present perfect tense; as, "He must have left." When *ought* refers to past time, it is followed by the perfect infinitive.

REM. 2.—*Quoth* is now seldom used. *Beware* (*be ware* or *wary*) is used mostly in the imperative mode; as, "Beware of dogs."

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

An *impersonal* verb is one by which an action or state is asserted independently of any particular subject; as, "It rains." "It snows."

REM. 1.—*Methinks*, *methought*, *meseems*, *meseemed*, may be regarded as impersonal, or rather unipersonal verbs. They are equivalent to *I think*, *I thought*, *It seems*, *it seemed to me*.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

- (1.) Give the part of speech, and tell why.
- (2.) Tell whether it is regular or irregular, and why.
- (3.) Give the principal parts.
- (4.) Tell whether it is transitive or intransitive, and why.
- (5.) " the voice and form, and why.
- (6.) " mode, and why.
- (7.) " tense, and why.
- (8.) Inflect the tense.
- (9.) Tell the number and person, and why.
- (10.) Give the rule.

NOTE. — If the verb is in the infinitive, instead of giving the number, person, and inflection, give the construction and the rule. If the verb is in one of the compound tenses, analyze it according to the model, (p. 70.) If the verb is defective, tell the parts that are used, and parse it according to the model. If the form is a participle, tell what kind, the verb from which it is derived, conjugate, give the construction and rule. After the pupil has made some progress, the following short form may be adopted : —

- (1.) It is a regular or irregular, transitive or intransitive verb, (if transitive,) active or passive form.
- (2.) Principal parts.
- (3.) Mode.
- (4.) Tense.
- (5.) Number and person.
- (6.) Construction and rule.

EXAMPLES.

"Sarah has written a letter."

Has written . . . is a verb ; a word which expresses being, action, or state ; *irregular* — it does not form its past tense, and past participle by adding *ed* ; *principal parts*, (pres. *write*, past *wrote*, past part. *written* ;) *transitive* — it requires the addition of an object to complete its meaning ; *active voice* — it represents the subject as acting ; *common form* — it represents an act indefinitely, as a custom, or as completed, without reference to its progress ; *indicative mode* — it asserts a thing as actual ; *present perfect tense* — it expresses an action completed in present time ; it is formed by prefixing *have*, which denotes present time, and is the sign of completion to the past participle *written*, which denotes completion ; (*I have written, thou hast written, he has written ; we have written, you have written, they have written ;*) *third person singular number*, because its subject, *Sarah*, is, with which it agrees, according to Rule IV. "The verb must agree with its subject in number and person."

"She can play."

Can play is a verb, (why ?) *regular*, (why ?) *principal parts*, (why ?)

intransitive, (why?) common form, (why?) potential mode, (why?) present tense, (why?) (analyze and inflect it,) first person, singular number, (why?) Rule IV.

"America was discovered by Columbus."

Was discovered . is a *regular transitive verb, passive voice* — or which is the same thing, a *regular passive verb* — the subject is represented as acted upon; (*discover, discovered, discovered,*) *indicative mode, (why?) past tense, (why?) (analyze and inflect it,) third person, singular number, and agrees with its subject, America, according to Rule IV.*

"I love to see the sun shine."

To see is an *irregular transitive verb, active voice, &c., infinitive mode, (why?) present tense, and limits love, according to Rule XVI.* "The infinitive has the construction of the noun &c."

"If they were reading the book."

Were reading . . is an *irregular transitive verb, active voice, progressive form, (why?) subjunctive mode, (why?) &c.*

"Has he come?"

Has come is an *irregular intransitive verb, common form, (conjugated interrogatively,) &c.*

EXERCISES.

Parse the verbs in the following examples :—

Will you help me? I hope for better things. Blessed is the consoler. Have you found the paper? I would not have believed it. I could not live to see it. Do good to all. She had gone to walk. The weather was unpleasant. Did you lose your umbrella? I heard the carriage. If you wish, I will accompany you. She must learn her lesson. She hoped to have gone. Why will you persist? Reverence the aged.

Add an object and change the following transitive verbs from the active to the passive voice :—

Mary loved. They read. John wrote. I made. Henry lost. The girls moved. The little boy hid. The children played. He threw. Anna found. You struck. He rowed. Hear. The father punished. Jane broke. Give. Will you lend? They left. Thus: Mary loved the truth = The truth was loved by Mary.

Change the following transitive verbs from the passive to the active form, and supply a subject when it is omitted.

America was discovered in 1492. Religious liberty was established in Rhode Island. The Magna Charta was granted to the English. The Mexicans were defeated at Buena Vista. The king was concealed in the tree. The retreat of the Greeks was conducted very skilfully. A great battle was fought at Marathon. The gunpowder plot was discovered. King Charles was restored to the throne in 1660. Paradise Lost was written by Milton. The Messiah was written by a distinguished poet. The apples were seen to fall. The book was improved by the master. The world was created. Thus: *Christopher Columbus* discovered America in 1492.

ADVERBS.

An *adverb* is a word used to modify the meaning of a *verb*, *adjective*, *participle*, or other *adverb*; as, "He learns *quickly*."

REM. 1. — When an idea, however expressed, is put in such relation to a verb, an adjective, a participle, or an adverb, as to express some circumstance of *place*, *time*, *cause*, or *manner*, it is adverbial, because it is placed in an adverbial relation in the sentence. The same idea placed in relation to a noun or pronoun is of the nature of an adjective; as, "He who acts *uprightly* is an *upright* man."

REM. 2. — When an adverbial idea is expressed by a single word, that word is called an *adverb*; as, "He walks *slowly*." The relation is determined either by the termination, the position, or the meaning. When the idea is expressed by a noun, the relation is expressed by a preposition; as, "The affair was managed *with prudence*" = prudently. In this case the phrase, consisting of the preposition and noun, is said to be *adverbial*. When the idea is expressed by a proposition, the relation is expressed by a conjunctive adverb. Here the clause, consisting of a connective, subject, and predicate, is adverbial; as, "Speak *so that you can be understood*" = *distinctly*.

REM. 3. — Words properly called adverbs are abridged expressions. They take the place of phrases consisting of a preposition and noun; as, "He lived *there*" = *in that place*. "He conducted *wisely*" = *in a wise manner*.

REM. 4. — Sometimes an adverb seems to qualify a noun, and thereby to partake of the nature of an adjective; as, "I found the boy *only*."

REM. 5. — Sometimes an adverb modifies a phrase, or an entire proposition; as, "*Far* from home." "The old man *likewise* came to the city."

EXERCISES.

Point out the adverbs in the following sentences :—

She sang *sweetly*. The wind moaned *mournfully* over her grave. O, lightly, lightly tread. Come to me *quickly*. The storm raged *fearfully*. When shall I see you again? They lived *very happily*. They were agreeably disappointed. Do you expect them *to-morrow*? She is continually changing her mind. I saw him *frequently*. Mary is *always* happy. I found the book *there*. She performs her duty *faithfully*. It cannot be true. Perhaps I shall go. Doubtless it is true. George writes *elegantly*.

Insert the following adverbs in sentences of your own :—

Where, hopefully, soon, bravely, yes, surely, undeniably, sorrowfully, briefly, quite, exceedingly, emphatically, below, above, ever, constantly, so, yet, although, no, verily, tediously, trustingly, patiently, yesterday therefore, nearly, charmingly, lovingly, brightly, never, heroically.

Correct the following expressions in all respects :—

Tell Mary to come *quick*. That looks *good*. The flower smells *sweet*. He *ketched* cold a going out. The wind *blowed* dreadful. He *teached* me as good as he could. The little boy was *drownded*. They did the *sum*

right. She hadnt ought to tell. I don't believe a word ont. Have you come near a mile? Taint true. Doesnt she look charming? Aint she handsome. Mary drewed a picter beautiful. Let each one do all they can. My feet's cold. I have got a new book aint you glad. Im e'en a'most molted. Set right down here.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS.

Adverbs may be divided into four general classes — adverbs of *place*, of *time*, of *cause*, of *manner*.

(1.) Adverbs of *place* answer the questions Where? Whither? Whence? as, *here, there, above, yonder, below, somewhere, back, upwards, downwards, &c.*

(2.) Adverbs of *time* answer the questions When? How long? How often? as, *then, yesterday, always, continually, often, frequently, &c.*

(3.) Adverbs of *cause* answer the questions Why? Wherefore? as, *why, wherefore, therefore, then.*

NOTE. — Causal relations are commonly expressed by *phrases* and *clauses*.

(4.) Adverbs of *manner* and *degree* answer the question How? as, *elegantly, faithfully, fairly, &c.* They are generally derived from adjectives denoting quality.

NOTE. — Under the head of *degree* may be classed those which answer the question How? in respect to *quantity* or *quality*, as, *How much? How good? &c.*; as, *too, very, greatly, chiefly, perfectly, mainly, wholly, totally, quite, exceedingly.*

REM. 1. — *Modal adverbs*, or those which show the manner of the *assertion*, belong to this class also. The following are the principal modal adverbs: *yes, yea, verily, truly, surely, undoubtedly, doubtless, forsooth, certainly; no, nay, not, possibly, probably, perhaps, peradventure, perchance.*

REM. 2. — The adverbs *when, where, why, how, &c.*, when used in asking questions, are called *interrogative adverbs*; as, "*When did he come?*"

REM. 3. — Adverbs of *manner* are generally formed from adjectives by adding *ly*; as, *bright, bright-ly; smooth, smooth-ly.* But when the adjective ends in *ly*, the *phrase* is commonly used; as, "*in a lovely manner,*" instead of *lovelyly.*

REM. 4. — *There* is used as an expletive to introduce a sentence when the verb *to be* denotes existence; as, "*There are many men of the same opinion.*" It is also sometimes used with the verbs *seem, appear, come, go*, and others; as, "*There went out a decree from Caesar Augustus.*" In this use it has no meaning.

REM. 5. — The adverb *so* is often used as a substitute for some preceding word or group of words; as, "*He is in good business, and is likely to remain so.*"

EXERCISE.

Tell the class of the following adverbs: —

Very, greatly, perhaps, therefore, below, to-morrow, when, there, purely, truly, always, continually, yesterday, why, sorrowfully, vainly, down, above, here, vainly, exceedingly.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

Conjunctive adverbs are those which give to a dependent clause an adverbial relation, and connect it with the verb, adjective, or adverb, which it modifies; as, "I shall meet my friend *when* the boat arrives."

REM. 1. — The principal conjunctive adverbs will be found under the head of connectives. (See p. 106.) They are equivalent to two phrases, the one containing a relative pronoun, the other its antecedent; as, "The lilies grow *where* the ground is moist" = The lilies grow *in that place in which* the ground is moist. Here the phrase *in that place* modifies *grows*, and the phrase *in which* modifies *moist*; hence *where*, the equivalent of the two, modifies both.

REM. 2. — The words *therefore, wherefore, hence, whence, consequently, then, now, besides, likewise, also, too, moreover*, and some others, are adverbs, and at the same time are used — either alone or when associated with other connectives, to join propositions. But unlike conjunctive adverbs, they connect coordinate and not subordinate clauses.

EXERCISE.

Point out the conjunctive adverbs in the following examples: —

He will be prepared when the time arrives. Where I go, you shall go. He may return whenever she wishes. He disobeyed the rule, although he knew it was wrong. Whither I go ye cannot come. He came as soon as his engagements would permit. I will go because she wishes to see me.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

Many adverbs, especially those denoting manner, admit of comparison; as, *brightly, more brightly, most brightly; soon, sooner, soonest.*

REM. 1. — When an adjective undergoes comparison, it shows that two or more *objects* are compared; but when an adverb undergoes the same change, it shows that two or more *actions or qualities* are compared; as, "James speaks more fluently than George" [*speaks*.]

REM. 2. — The following adverbs are compared irregularly: *Ill or badly, worse, worst; little, less, least; far, farther, farthest; much, more, most; well, better, best.*

EXERCISES.

Compare the following adverbs: —

Coolly, noiselessly, famously, soon, near, little, well, much, joyfully, passively.

Tell the degree of comparison of the following: —

More, earnestly, nearer, soonest, brightly, most, worst, comparatively most plentifully.

PARSING.

To parse an adverb, tell, —

- (1.) What part of speech it is, and why.
- (2.) Compare it, (where it admits of it,) and tell what degree.
- (3.) Tell what it modifies.
- (4.) Give the rule.

MODEL.

"The sun shines *brightly*."

Brightly . . . is an *adverb*; it modifies the meaning of the verb; it is compared (positive *brightly*, comparative *more brightly*, superlative *most brightly*;) it is in the *positive degree*; it modifies the verb *shines*, according to Rule IX. (Repeat it.)

"Mary writes *more elegantly* than her brother."

More elegantly . . . is an *adverb*; it modifies the meaning of the verb; it is compared, (*elegantly*, *more elegantly*, *most elegantly*;) it is in the *comparative degree*; it modifies the verb *writes*, according to Rule IX. (Repeat it.)

"I will go *whenever* you wish."

Whenever . . . is a *conjunctive adverb*, because it gives to the dependent clause an adverbial relation, and connects it with the verb *will go*; it modifies both *will go* and *wish*, according to Rule IX.

PREPOSITIONS.

NOTE. — For an oral exercise, see Introduction.

A *preposition* is a word used to show the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word; as, "The ship was seen *from* the citadel." "He sailed *upon* the ocean *in* a ship of war."

REM. 1. — The preposition always shows a relation between two terms, an *antecedent* and a *subsequent*. The subsequent term is called the *object* of the preposition. The preposition and object united form a dependent element of the sentence having the antecedent term as its principal.

REM. 2. — The preposition always shows a relation of dependence. When the antecedent term is a noun, the dependent phrase is of the nature of an adjective; as, "The rays *of the sun*" = solar rays.

When the antecedent term is a verb, participle, adjective, or adverb, the dependent phrase is of the nature of an adverb, (sometimes an indirect object;) as, "The case was conducted *with skill*" = *skillfully*.

REM. 3. — The *object* of the preposition is not always a single word; it may be a *phrase* or *clause*; as, "The city was *about to capitulate* when Napoleon arrived." "Much will depend *on who the commissioners are*."

REM. 4. — The preposition is sometimes placed after its object; as, 'While its song, sublime as thunder, rolls the woods *along*.' The preposition and object sometimes precede the word on which they depend; as, 'Of all patriots, Washington was the noblest.'

The following is a list of the principal prepositions in use :—

aboard,	before,	for,	through,
about,	behind,	from,	throughout,
above,	below,	in, into,	till,
according to,	beneath,	'mid;	to,
across,	beside or	'midst,	touching,
after,	besides,	notwithstanding,	toward or
against,	between,	of,	towards,
along,	betwixt,	for,	under,
amid or	beyond,	on,	underneath,
amidst,	by,	out of,	until,
among or	concerning,	over,	unto,
amongst,	down,	past,	up,
around,	during,	regarding,	upon,
at,	ere,	respecting,	with,
athwart,	except,	round,	within,
bating,	excepting,	since,	without.

REM. 1. — *According to, as to, as for, out of, instead of, because of, off from, over against, round about, from among, from between, from around* from *before*, and the like, may be regarded as *complex prepositions*, and parsed as a single word; or the first word of the phrase may be parsed as an *adverb*. *According, contrary*, in the phrases *according to, contrary to*, are sometimes regarded as *participles* or *adjectives* modifying some noun in the sentence.

REM. 2. — In such connections as the following, put *in*, go *up*, go *down*, cut *through*, pass *by*, climb *up*, and the like, the preposition may be parsed as an *adverb* when it is not followed by an object; also the *Italicized words* in such sentences as the following: "The captain stood *in* for the shore." "They rode *by* in haste."

REM. 3. — Some words, most commonly prepositions, are occasionally used as *adverbs*; these are, *before, after, till, until, above, beneath, for, on, in, &c.* So also some words commonly employed as *adverbs* are sometimes used as *prepositions*; as, *but, save, despite, &c.* *Off* is usually an *adverb*, but may be parsed as a *preposition* when followed by an object. *Instead* is either a *preposition*, or equivalent to a *preposition* and *noun* = *in stead*.

REM. 4. — In such expressions, as, *a hunting, a fishing*, and the like, if authorized at all, the *a* may be regarded as itself a *preposition*, or a contraction of *at, in, or on*.

PARSING.

To parse a preposition, tell, —

- (1.) What part of speech, and why.
- (2.) Between what words it shows the relation.
- (3.) Give the rule.

"He went *from* England *to* France."

From is a *preposition*; it is used to show the relation between a noun *as*

pronoun and some other word ; it shows the relation between the noun *England* and the verb *went*, according to Rule XIII. (Repeat it.)

To . . . is a *preposition* ; it shows the relation between the noun *France* and the verb *went*, according to Rule XIII.

Point out the prepositions in the following sentences, and tell between what words they show the relation.

He heard the birds sing in the morning. The buds are swelling in the sun's warm rays. The winds will come from the distant south. The bees gather honey from the flowers. I bring fresh showers for the thirsty flowers from sea and stream. I shall be Queen of the May. In the garden the crocus blooms. The hills are covered with a carpet of green. We shall have pleasant walks with our friends. We shall seek the early fruits in the sunny valley.

Make use of the following prepositions in sentences of your own :—

Under, above, on, before, behind, from, beneath, by, except, during, around, through, over, past, without, within, till, towards, according to, beyond, across, in, up, with, notwithstanding.

Correct the following expressions in all respects :—

The ship lays in the harbor. They sung very good. She laid down. Will you shut up the winder ? I have took that book from its place. They spended all their money. He begun his work. The wasp stinged him. He knowed it wasnt true. Somebody has stole my pen. Her shoes are wore out. The sun has rose. The trees growed fast. She throwed the ball jist so high as she could. He set down. He has went away afore I come. Ive hearn tell. They come right home. A dog drawed the wagon. The books are tore bad. She had fell down, and hurted herself.

How many instances of incorrect expressions have you noticed to-day ?

CONJUNCTIONS.

NOTE.—For oral exercise, see Introduction.

A *conjunction* is a word used to connect sentences, or the parts of sentences ; as, "The horse fell over the precipice, *but* the rider escaped." "The horse *and* rider fell over the precipice."

In the first example, *but* connects two sentences ; in the second, *and* connects the two parts, *horses* and *rider*.

REM. 1.—A pure conjunction forms no part of the material or substance of a sentence ; its office is simply to unite the materials into a single structure.

REM. 2.—Besides pure conjunctions, there is a large class of words which enter into the sentence as a part of its substance, and at the same time connect different elements or parts ; as, "This is the pencil *which* I lost." Here *which* is the object of *lost*, and at the same time connects the dependent clause, *which I lost*, to *pencil*. All such words are called *connectives* or *conjunctive words*.

CLASSES OF CONNECTIVES.

All connectives (whether pure conjunctions or conjunctive words) are divided into two classes — *coördinate* and *subordinate*. *Coördinate* connectives are those which join similar or homogeneous elements; as, “*John AND James were disciples.*”

Here *John* and *James* are similar in construction, and have a common relation to the predicate.

REM. 1.— Two elements are *coördinate*, and consequently demand a *coördinate* conjunction, when they are placed in the same relation or rank; as, “The insects devoured *leaves* and *blossoms*.” Here *leaves* is dependent on *devoured*; *blossoms* also is not only dependent, but has precisely the same sort of dependence as *leaves*; hence they are *coördinate* with each other. In the sentence, “The insects devoured the leaves greedily,” *leaves* and *greedily* are both dependent on *devoured*, but they have by no means the same dependence; hence they are not *coördinate*, and cannot be connected by *and*, or any other *coördinate* conjunction.

Coördinate connectives are always conjunctions, and may be divided into three classes — *copulative*, *adversative*, and *alternative*.

Copulative conjunctions are those which add parts in harmony with each other; as, “The day dawned, *and* our friends departed.”

The *copulative* conjunctions are, —

(1.) *And*, a connective of the most general character, placing the connected parts in a relation of perfect equality, without modification or emphasis.

(2.) *So*, *also*, *likewise*, *too*, *besides*, *moreover*, *furthermore*, *now*, *hence*, *whence*, *therefore*, *wherefore*, *consequently*, *even*, connectives associated with *and* expressed or understood, and used to give *emphasis*, or some additional idea; as, “She sings; [and] *besides* she plays beautifully.”

(3.) *Not only . . . but*, *but also*, *but likewise*, *as well . . . as*, *both . . . and*, *first . . . secondly*, *thirdly*, &c.; connectives employed when we wish not only to make the second part emphatic, but to awaken an expectation of some addition. As these parts correspond to each other, these connectives are called *correlatives*.

Adversative conjunctions are those which unite parts in opposition to, or in contrast with, each other; as, “The fish was brought to the shore, *but* plunged into the water again.”

REM. — *Adversative* conjunctions are employed, (1.) When the second part is placed in opposition to the first; as, “It does not rain, *but* it snows.” (2.) When the second part is placed in opposition to a supposed

inference from the first; as, "The army was victorious, *but* the general was slain. Here, lest the inference should be that all was prosperous, the second clause with *but* is added.

The adversative conjunctions are, —

(1.) *But*, which simply shows opposition without emphasis; as, "I shall go, *but* I shall not walk."

(2.) *Yet, still, nevertheless, notwithstanding, however, now*, and some others, which are associated with *but*, either expressed or understood, and give emphasis or some additional idea; as, "The delinquent has been repeatedly admonished, (but) *still* he is as negligent as ever."

Alternative conjunctions are those which offer or deny a choice between two things; as, "We must fight, or our liberties will be lost." "She can *neither* sing *nor* play."

The alternative conjunctions are, —

(1.) *Or*, which *offers*, and *nor*, (*not or*,) which *denies* a choice.

(2.) *Else, otherwise*, associated with *or* for the sake of emphasis.

(3.) *Either* and *neither*, correlatives of *or* and *nor*.

NOTE. — Parts standing in a causal relation to each other are sometimes coordinate; but usually there are, in such cases, two connectives, one expressed and the other understood; as, "The south wind blows, [and] therefore, there must be rain."

Subordinate connectives are those which join dissimilar or heterogeneous elements; as, "I shall go *when* the stage arrives."

Here *when* joins the subordinate clause, *when the stage arrives*, to the verb *shall go*. It is a part of the clause itself, being equivalent to *at the time in which*. Hence it should be introduced in naming the clause; but not so with the pure coordinate conjunctions.

REM. 1. — The second element is always a proposition; it is subordinate, and consequently demands a subordinate connective, because it becomes merely a limiting expression of the antecedent term on which it depends. It is unlike the part with which it is connected in its form, in its relation or rank, and in its grammatical character.

REM. 2. — A subordinate connective, like a preposition, always shows a relation of dependence. But the second term is a proposition, instead of a noun or pronoun.

Subordinate connectives are divided into three classes — those which connect *substantive* clauses, those which connect *adjective* clauses, and those which connect *adverbial* clauses.

(1.) Substantive clauses containing a statement are connected by the conjunctions *that, that not*, and sometimes *but, but that*. Substantive clauses containing an inquiry are connected by the interrogatives *who, which, what, where, whither, whence, when, how long, how often, why, whenever, how*.

(2.) Adjective clauses are connected by the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichever*, *whatsoever*, and sometimes the relative adverbs *why*, *when*, *where*.

(3.) Adverbial clauses are connected by the conjunctive adverbs *where*, *whither*, *whence*, *wherever*, *whithersoever*, *as far as*, *as long as*, *farther than*, which denote *PLACE*; *when*, *while*, *whilst*, *as*, *before*, *after*, *ere*, *till*, *until*, *since*, *whenever*, *as long as*, *as soon as*, *the moment*, *the instant*, *as frequently as*, *as often as*, which denote *TIME*; or the conjunctions *because*, *forasmuch as*, *since*, *inasmuch*, (causal,) *if*, *unless*, *though*, *lest*, *except*, *provided*, *provided that*, (conditional,) *that*, *that not*, *lest*, (final,) *though*, *although*, *notwithstanding*, *however*, *whatever*, *whoever*, *whichever*, *while*, with the correlatives *yet*, *still*, *nevertheless*, (adversative,) which denote *CAUSAL* relations; *as*, *just as*, *so . . . as*, *same . . . as*, (correspondence,) *so . . . that*, *such . . . that*, (consequence,) *as . . . as*, (comparison of equality,) *the . . . the*, *the . . . so much the*, (proportionate equality,) *than*, *more than*, *less than*, (comparison of inequality,) which denote *MANNER*.

PARSING.

In parsing a conjunction or connective, tell, —

- (1.) What part of speech, and why.
- (2.) To what class it belongs.
- (3.) What elements it connects.
- (4.) Give the rule.

"Socrates and Plato were distinguished philosophers."

And . . . is a *conjunction*; it is used to connect sentences, or the parts of sentences; *coordinate*, because it connects similar elements; it connects *Socrates* and *Plato*, according to Rule XI. (Repeat it.)

"Wisdom is better than riches."

Than . . . is a *conjunction*, (why?) *subordinate*, because it connects dissimilar elements; it connects the proposition *than riches (are)* with *better*, according to Rule XV. (Repeat it.)

"We must either obey or be punished."

Either . . . is a *coordinate conjunction*, (alternative,) used to awaken expectation of an additional element, and also to introduce it with emphasis.

Or . . . is a *coordinate conjunction*, (alternative,) and with its correlative *either* is used to connect the element *be punished* with *must obey*. Rule XI. (Repeat it.)

"Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him."

Though . . . is a *subordinate conjunction*, (adversative,) used to awaken expectation of an additional idea.

Yet . . . is a *subordinate conjunction*, (adversative,) and with its correlative *though* is used to connect the subordinate clause, "*he slay me*," with the principal one, "*will I trust in him*," according to Rule XV.

EXERCISES.

Point out the conjunctions in the following examples : —

The moon and stars are shining. David or his sister will come. The king and queen were on a journey. He neither went himself nor allowed his friends to go. Let us go and play. Come with us, and we will do you good. ●

Tell which of the following connectives are coördinate, and which are subordinate : —

The pen and ink are poor. The horse and the rider were plunged into the water. If you come, I shall have the work in readiness. When the million applaud, seriously ask yourself what harm you have done. He knew that he had disobeyed instructions. That which cannot be cured must be endured. Take heedlest ye fall.

Parse the connectives in the following sentences : —

I have found a knife and fork. I was eyes to the blind, and feet was I to the lame. He can neither stand nor walk. They stopped where night overtook them. Truth is powerful, and will prevail. If you have nothing to say, say nothing.

Write appropriate connectives in place of the dashes in the following : —

—— it should rain, I shall not go. —— the cat is away, the mice will play. Samuel —— his brother came to town. We learn to read —— write.

INTERJECTION.

An interjection is a word used to express some strong or sudden emotion of the mind. "Alas! I then have chid away my friend."

REM. 1. — As the interjection is not the sign of a thought, but merely an expression of emotion, it cannot have any definable signification, or grammatical construction; but as it is of frequent use in colloquial and impassioned discourse, it should not be omitted in passing.

NOTE. — Interjection is derived from the Latin word *interjectus* = thrown between.

REM. 2. — The most common interjections are, *hey, hurrah, huzza*, expressing joy or exultation; *aha, hah, ah*, expressing surprise; *ho, lo, halloo*, calling attention; *fie, pshaw, pugh, tush, foh*, expressing aversion or contempt; *alas, woe, alack, O*, expressing sorrow, grief, or compassion; *hush, hush, mum*, expressing a wish for silence; *heigh-ho, heigh-ho-hum*, expressing languor; *ha, ha, he, he*, expressing laughter.

REM. 3. — Some words used as interjections should be parsed as verbs, nouns, or adjectives; as in the sentence "*Strange!* cried I." *Strange* is an adjective, and the expression is equivalent to "it is strange;" and in the sentence, "*Behold!* how well he bears misfortune's frowns!" *behold* is a verb in the imperative, equivalent to *behold ye*.

PARSING.

To parse an interjection, tell, —

- (1.) What part of speech, and why?
- (2.) Give the rule.

“O, lightly, lightly tread.”

O . . is an *interjection*; it is used to express some strong or sudden emotion of the mind; it has no grammatical connection with any other word. Rule X.

EXERCISE.

Point out and parse the interjections in the following sentences: —

O, I shall love the sea because it is his grave. Hark! they whisper, angels say, “Sister spirit! come away!” He died, alas! in early youth. Long live Lord Robin! huzza! huzza!

GENERAL EXERCISES.

ALL THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

Parse the words in the following examples: —

The wedding will take place to-morrow. The school was dismissed at five o'clock. Every endeavor to do right brings its own reward. They heard the music of the band. Ask them to come and spend the evening with us. The hero of a hundred battles is no more. He must study, for without attention he cannot improve. O, why did you deceive me? The hour of retribution has at length arrived. Could he do this, and I remain silent? He sacrificed every thing he had in this world: what could we ask more?

If he confessed it, then forgive him. The effect of this devotion of elegant minds to rural occupations has been wonderful on the face of the country. The low of herds blends with the rustling of the heavy grain. The Creator of all things is infinitely good.

On the sad evening before the death of the noble youth, I was with him. The ship leaps, as it were, madly from billow to billow. Man, we believe, never loses the sentiment of his true good. How different would have been our lot this day, both as men and citizens, had the revolution failed of success! He that loveth not his brother, whom he hath seen, how can he love God, whom he hath not seen? We one day descried some shapeless object drifting at a distance. The most exalted virtue is often despised.

They resided for a long time in Italy. The nightingale sings most sweetly when it sings in the night. Think on me, when it shall be well with thee.

SYNTAX.

ORAL EXERCISE.

When I have a single idea in my mind, as that of a lamb, how many words do I use to express it? *Ans. One.* But if I have an idea of a *lamb* and also an idea of its *playing*, how many ideas have I? *Ans. Two.* How many words must I now use? *Ans. Two, lamb and playing.* But when I think of the *lamb* and the *playing*, I think of them both *together*. I can not see the playing without seeing the lamb. How can I show that they are both united? *Ans. By uniting the words a playing lamb.* But when I wish to tell you, or say to you what the lamb *does*, and not to express *what kind* of a lamb I see, what should I then say? *Ans. The lamb plays.* Then, in either case, I must put *the words together*. What is this putting words together called? *Ans. Syntax = putting together.* Now, when we put two words together so that one merely *describes* the other, as, *blooming lily*, we show that the ideas are connected; also when we put them together so as to *tell* or *declare* what we *think* or *judge*, as, "*The lily blooms,*" we show a connection; but what else do we express? *Ans. A thought or judgment.* Now sentence (*sententia* = thought) means a thought; what, then, shall we call such expressions as *dogs bark, trees grow, flowers fade*? *Ans. Sentences.* Which of the following are sentences, and which are not? — Flowing water, water flows; melting ice, ice melts; falling rain, rain falls; the fierce dog, the dog is fierce; the white sheep, the sheep is white.

Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.

A *sentence* is a thought expressed in words; as, "The winds blow." "The snow melts."

To understand a sentence we must attend to its *construction*, its *analysis*, and the *principles* or *rules* by which its parts are combined.

I. CONSTRUCTION — Sentence-making.*

Every sentence must have a *subject* and a *predicate*; as, *Trees* (sub.) *grow* (pred.)

As every structure must have a foundation, so every sentence must have a *subject*, (*subjectus* = thrown under as a foundation,) or something of

* TO THE TEACHER. — The object of the teacher in this important department of syntax should be to draw the attention of the pupil to the parts of a sentence as they cluster around the subject and predicate. Although it implies a species of analysis to be able to point out the parts as in the exercises under "Construction," yet the specific rules and models for analyzing are placed, for the sake of convenience, in a separate division. The following examples are classified according to certain peculiarities, which will, in the pupil's progress, become obvious; but at first it will be best for the teacher to be guided by the order of *thought*, regardless of the *forms* of expression.

which we speak Again: as a foundation is not a complete building, so a subject alone does not form a complete sentence; a *predicate* must be added to show that something is *said* of the subject, thus: if we have *trees* for the subject, we must unite with it something, as *grow*, for the predicate, to show what is said of trees. In the same manner we have *water flows*, *ice melts*.

SECTION I.

SIMPLE SENTENCES — WORDS — RELATIONS
UNREPRESENTED.

A *simple* sentence contains but one proposition; as, "The crocus blooms."

A *proposition* is the combination of a subject and a predicate; as, "Virtue ennobles."

When the parts of a sentence are placed together without any intervening word to show the connection, the relation is said to be *unrepresented*.

A. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE UNMODIFIED.

The simplest possible sentence contains *only two* parts — a *subject* and a *predicate*.

The *subject* is that of which something is affirmed; as, "The winds blow."

The following will serve as a model: The teacher, standing at the board, says, "Who will mention something for a subject?" The pupils raise their hands — one says, *Lamb*. The teacher writes upon the board *lamb*. The teacher now says to the boy who gave the subject, "Had you in mind a particular lamb?" If so, what sign should we prefix? *Ans. The*. The teacher writes, "*The* lamb." Now, what have you to say of the lamb? What did the lamb do? *Ans. "The lamb ran."* The teacher or some pupil asks, "*What kind of lamb?*" *Ans. "The young lamb ran."* The teacher asks, "What has been added to the word *lamb*?" *Ans. Young*. What kinds of lambs are excluded by it? *Ans. All kinds but young ones*. The teacher or some pupil (let the members of the class be encouraged to ask questions) asks, "*How* did he run?" *Ans. Swiftly*. "The young lamb ran *swiftly*." What effect has the word *swiftly*? *Ans. It shows how the lamb ran, and forbids us thinking of his running in any other manner than swiftly*. Other questions will naturally be suggested, such as, *When, Where, or Why* did he run? Let these be answered in the same way. The teacher will now see how he can give out a lesson which will both *occupy* and *interest* the whole class. He proposes, or allows the members to propose, some four or five subjects; he then requires them to bring in well-written sentences, having something to show *what kind, how many, what, when, where, or how, &c.* After several exercises of this kind, the teacher can show the class that *one* word sometimes answers a question *how, where, &c.*; at other times, two or more words are required, and thus the way is prepared for the classified examples which follow.

The *predicate* is that which is affirmed of the subject as, "The winds *blow*."

NOTE.—The subject may be known by its answering the question *Who?* or *What?* thus: *Who speaks?* *Ans.* Susan speaks. *What fell?* *Ans.* Apples fell. The predicate may be known by its answering the question, *What is ——— doing?* or *What does ——— do?* What does John do? *Ans.* John writes.

EXERCISES.

Point out the subject and predicate in the following:—

(1.) (*Subject expressed.*) Roses fade. Time flies. Stars shine. Children play. She reads. I hope. They hear. Grass grows. I live. He knows. We ride. God exists. Jesus wept. Fruit ripens.

(2.) (*Subject understood.*) Come. Learn. Go. Study. Wait. Spell. Construct. Tell. See. Behold. Return. Awake. Arise. Sing. Shout. March. Halt. Aim. Fire.

Supply the part which is wanting in the following:—

(3.) (*Subject wanting.*) ——— frisk. ——— sting. ——— buzz. ——— whisper. ——— study. ——— open. ——— shut. ——— rule. ——— eat. ——— drink. ——— freezes. ——— congeals.

(4.) (*Predicate wanting.*) Ducks ———. Fishes ———. Mice ———. Frogs ———. Vapor ———. Dew ———. Zephyrs ———. Pines ———. Waves ———. Billows ———. Lightning ———. Thunder ———.

Supply a subject and predicate of your own in five examples.

(5.) (*Subject and predicate wanting.*) ———, ———, &c.

Unite the following words between the commas into sentences, and tell which word undergoes a change:—

(6.) (*Parts not combined.*) Wind roar, queen reign, he speak, she sit, t snow, Peter deny, dove coo, time fly, corn ripen, sugar melt, tree bud, serpent hiss.

B. SUBJECT MODIFIED.

ORAL EXERCISE.

When the subject may mean *any* one of a great number of objects, how can we signify that we mean *one*, but not any *particular* one? *Ans.* By prefixing *a* or *an*; as, *a* book, *an* apple. But when the subject may mean any one or more of a great number of objects, how can we signify that we mean some *particular* object or objects? *Ans.* By placing *the* before it, thus: *the* book, *the* apples. But does *the* show *what* particular books or apples are meant? *Ans.* It does *not*; it only shows that the speaker is thinking of something in particular. How can he show *what* particular thing he is thinking of? *Ans.* By adding some word or words to *describe* or *individualize* it. (See Introduction, p. xxx.) Thus the word *horses* means all the horses in the world; but the phrase *white horses* means only a part of them; the phrase, *two white horses*, means only a small part of the *white horses*, while the phrase, *the two white horses in yonder stable*, means the *particular* ones intended. Which of the above *italicized* expressions denotes the greatest number of horses? *Ans.* *Horses*. How did we first *modify* it, or *limit* the number? *Ans.* By adding *white*. What kinds of horses does the word *white* exclude? *Ans.* *Red*

brown, black, gray, &c., horses. What does the word *two* exclude? *Ans.* It excludes any number greater than two. What does the expression *in yonder stable* exclude? *Ans.* Any two horses, even though they may be white, if found any where else than in the stable. Now, if we use *horses*, thus limited as a subject, what kind of a subject shall we have? *Ans.* A *modified* subject.

When the subject is described or limited by adding to it some other word or words, it becomes the *modified* subject. Hence, to distinguish it from the simple subject, we call it the *complex* or *logical* subject; as, "*Five birds* flew."

Here *birds* is the simple subject, and *five birds* the complex subject.

A sentence having a modified subject consists of *three* parts — a *subject*, a *predicate*, and an *adjective* part, called the *adjective element*.

VARIOUS KINDS OF COMPLEX SUBJECTS.

(a.) The complex subject may be the simple subject, and only one added word; as, "*These trees* grow."

When one word depends upon, and limits another, the latter is called the *basis* or *principal* element; as, "*Summer heat* debilitates." Here *heat* is the basis.

EXERCISES.

In the following examples point out the subject and the added word. Describe the latter, and explain its modifying effect: —

(1.) (*Limiting adjectives.*) This man came. Five dogs ran. One tree fell. The ink fades. A cat plays. Many flowers bloom. Some boys study. These fishes swim. Every one stands.

(2.) (*Qualifying adjectives.*) Old wood burns. Wise men err. Faithful horses draw. Hot water scalds. Good scholars learn. Wicked men fear. Cold winter comes.

(3.) (*Nouns in apposition.**) King Latinus ruled. Queen Mary reigned. President Taylor died. Marshal Soult conquered. Prince Eugene commanded. Madame Elizabeth suffered.

(4.) (*Nouns or pronouns in the possessive case.*) Mary's mother came. George's horse ran. Wellington's renown increased. Ellen's hopes vanished. Maria's journey began. William's invention failed. His finger bleeds. Our door creaks. Her head aches.

Add limiting words to the following subjects so as to form sentences con-

* See Model for apposition, page 31, or Rule VII.

aining the *as* parts — *three like* (1), *three like* (2), *three like* (3), and *three like* (4).

(5.) (*Adjective element wanting.*) — iron melts. — kitten mews.
 — rabbit leaps. — men prosper. — lions devour. —
 letters arrive. King — sang. Professor — studies. Doctor —
 rides — son reigned. — Messiah pleases. — daughters
 wept.

Supply a subject and adjective part for the following predicates : —

(6.) (*Subject and adjective element wanting.*) — chirps. —
 — crawls. — fade. — twinkles. —
 hops. — feed. — sinned. — sail
 — flourishes. — teaches. — bites.
 — fail.

Combine the following elements between the commas, and tell what changes you must make : —

(7.) (*Elements not constructed.*) Threë dove coo, high school change, Victoria children study, Valentine day come, apple tree bloom, I country bleed, fair Rhine flow, pale Melancholy sit, the plum ripen, one boy go, six dog bark.

Correct the following examples, and tell what words you alter : —

(8.) (*Elements incorrectly constructed.*) Some people says. I knows. This ostriches runs. That girls sleeps. Those kind grow. Many insect buzzes. Little acorn grows. Six chicken dies. They hears. Boston Journal arrive.

(b.) The complex subject may be the simple subject with two or more added words ; as, “ *That good ship sailed.*”

Here the adjective part consists of two elements, *good*, which describes the ship, and *that*, which points out what *good ship* is meant.

Two cases may arise ; the added words may belong directly to the subject, or they may first be added to each other, forming a *complex adjective element*, and then be joined as a combination to the subject, forming a complex subject ; as, “ *Those old soldiers suffered.*” “ *Very large supplies arrived.*”

CASE I. *Added words joined directly to the subject.*

EXERCISES

Point out the added words in the following examples, and explain their effect : —

(1.) (*Two limiting adjectives.*) The first dawn appeared. The two travelers returned. This second class recites. The three Horatii fought. The twelve Cæsars reigned. Many a gem sparkles. Such an assertion startles.

(2.) (*One limiting and one qualifying adjective.*) That popular sovereign defended. The old boiler burst. Every new lesson puzzles. The calorie snip sails. Any good book instructs. Several old houses fell.

(3.) (*Two limiting adjectives and one qualifying one.*) The first pleasant day came. Those two young men contended. Many a serious thought arose. Every third division remained.

(4.) (*One limiting and two qualifying adjectives.*) Those bright, happy children play. The old, sad memory comes. The little feathered songster warbles. That ambitious young man excels.

(5.) (*An adjective with the noun in apposition.*) The empress Eugenie reigns. The apostle Paul preached. The martyr Stephen died. This boy George repents.

(6.) (*A noun or pronoun in the possessive, and a noun in apposition.*) His daughter Sarah dances. Isaac's son Jacob deceived. Elizabeth's cousin Mary suffered. Christ's disciple Judas betrayed.

Put the proper words in the following blanks : —

(7.) (*A limiting and a qualifying adjective, and a subject wanting.*) _____ blows. _____ fades. _____
sows. _____ sleeps. _____ cries.
_____ howls. _____ crows. _____ out.

(8.) (*A noun in the possessive, and a noun in apposition wanting.*) _____
teacher _____ approves. _____ son _____ married. _____ sister _____
travelled. _____ daughter _____ wrote. _____ student _____ practise.

CASE II. *Added words joined to each other, and then joined to the subject, complex adjective element.*

EXERCISES.

Point out the words which are added to each other, and explain their effect upon each other, and their combined effect upon the subject.

(1.) (*An adverb added to an adjective.*) Very strange reports arose. Exceedingly heavy rains fell. Dearly-beloved friends depart. A truly great man appeared.

(2.) (*Adjectives and nouns in the possessive.*) The old man's daughter awoke. The huntsman's horn aroused. The bright sun's rays illumine. The wild wind's roar alarms.

(3.) (*Adjectives and nouns in apposition.*) Bunyan, the distinguished author, composed. Demosthenes, the celebrated orator, declaimed. Franklin, the American ambassador, negotiated. Arnold, the base traitor, escaped.

(4.) (*A noun in the possessive, and a noun in apposition.*) Victoria, England's queen, defends. Elizabeth, Henry's daughter, delayed. George, Ellen's teacher, instructed. Peter, Christ's disciple, denied.

Supply the proper words in the following blanks : —

(5.) (*Adjective and noun in the possessive wanting.*) _____ sword
slew. _____ mate mourned. _____ crash frightened.
_____ clerk absconded.

(6.) (*Adjective and noun in apposition wanting.*) David _____
repented. Solomon _____ prayed. Daniel _____ reposed.
Moses _____ defended. Miriam _____ sang. Bancroft
_____ narrates.

C. PREDICATE MODIFIED.

ORAL EXERCISE.

If I say, "The boy opened," and should stop there without saying any thing more, what question would you naturally ask? *Ans. What did he open?* Will you mention any thing that he might open? *Ans. A book, a knife, a box, a door, his eyes, his hands, his mouth, a letter, a window, an umbrella.* Now, if we should add to *opened* either of these words, it would restrict its application to that one, thus: "The boy opened the door." What does the word *door* exclude? *Ans. Book, knife, &c.* Now, when a word is joined to a transitive verb so as to limit its meaning by answering the question *what?* it is called the *object* or *objective element*, and the predicate becomes a *modified predicate*. So, again, if I should say, "The boy runs," what would you ask, if you wished to know where he was running? *Ans. Where does he run?* Right; and I should answer, pointing, *He runs yonder.* In a similar manner you may answer the question, *When does he run?* *How does he run?* When a word is added to a predicate restricting its meaning, and answering the questions *Where? When? Why? or How?* it is called an *adverb*, or an *adverbial element*, and the predicate becomes a *modified predicate*.

When the predicate is described or limited by adding to it some other word or words, it becomes the *modified predicate*. Hence, to distinguish it from the simple predicate, we call it the *complex* or *logical* predicate; as, "They found gold."

Here, *found* is the simple predicate, and *found gold* the logical predicate. A sentence having a modified predicate consists of at least three parts, a *subject*, a *predicate*, and an additional part called either the *objective* or the *adverbial element*.

VARIOUS KINDS OF COMPLEX PREDICATES.

(a.) The complex predicate may be the simple predicate and *only one* added word; as, "The refiner purifies *silver*."

EXERCISES.

Point out in the following examples the predicate and the added word; describe the latter, and explain its modifying effect:—

(1.) (*Objective element*.) They pared apples. Henry gathered hazel nuts. Sarah found violets. He killed mice. John sold matches. George melted lead. Mary boiled chestnuts.

(2.) (*Adverbial element—place*.) She dwells there. Who comes here? The shadow moved backwards. The thimble lies somewhere. She resides yonder. You may come up. The child sits down.

(3.) (*Adverbial element—time*.) I hope always. Anna arrived yesterday. She often yields. You change continually. I hear frequently. He comes occasionally. He rides now.

(4.) (*Adverbial element—cause*.) Why came ye? Wherefore ask you?

(5.) (*Adverbial element—manner*.) She played finely. The campaign opened vigorously. The cars run rapidly. The eagle soared proudly. The owl screeches mournfully. The curtains hang gracefully.

Add limiting words to the following predicates so as to form sentences containing three parts :—

(6.) (*Subject and object wanting.*) _____ seal. _____ devours
 _____ denied _____ whipped _____ drank
 _____ tied _____ ploughed _____ reaped
 _____ caught _____ admits _____ command-
 ed _____.

(7.) (*Verb and adverb wanting.*) Wolves _____ Bears _____
 _____ Signs _____ Vultures _____ Crocodiles _____
 _____ Hyenas _____ Wheat _____ Rye _____
 Steamboats _____.

Combine the following elements between the commas, and tell what changes you must make :—

(8.) (*Elements not constructed.*) Sarah help I, Frank play ball, John strike she, Child gather moss, Ink finger stain, Rain wet ground, Shower revive plant, Dust cover coat, Cloud obscure sun, Judge sentence he, He climb tree.

(b.) The complex predicate may be the simple predicate with *two* or more added words; as, "He examined *them critically*."

Here the predicate *examined* receives two additions, *them* and *critically*. The complex predicate consists, therefore, of the simple predicate and two added words.

Here, as in the subject, two cases may arise; the added words may belong directly to the predicate, or they may first be added to each other, forming a *complex objective* or a *complex adverbial element*, and then be joined to the predicate, forming a complex predicate; as, "He wrote *elegant letters*." "She walked *very slowly*."

CASE I. Added words joined directly to the predicate.

EXERCISES.

Point out the added words in the following examples, and explain their effect :—

(1.) (*Two objective elements.*) Give me flowers. They lent him money. They made him king. I wrote him letters. She taught me geography. He appointed John monitor. They called him George.

(2.) (*Objective and adverbial elements.*) They planted seeds there. They raised corn abundantly. He attends lectures constantly. The master taught him skilfully. He never found it. He now eats meat. The Bible teaches truth impressively. He utters subvocals distinctly.

Fill the following blanks with appropriate words :—

(3.) (*Subject and predicate wanting.*) The _____ skilfully. He _____ beautifully. Napoleon _____ triumphantly. Kosuth _____ eloquently. The lady _____ exquisitely. The clock _____ now. He seldom _____. She often _____.

(4.) (*Subject and adverb wanting.*) ——— caught fish ———, ———.
 sold books ———, ——— spent money ———, ——— struck William
 ———, ——— gathered strawberries ———, ——— cultivated trees
 ———, ——— mowed grass ———, ——— tended sheep ———, ———
 dressed vines ———, ——— sawed wood ———, ——— hunted deer

Combine the following elements between the commas, and tell what changes you must make :—

(5.) (*Elements not constructed.*) Clergyman preach forcible sermon,
Widely open gate porter the, Carriage coachman drive rapidly, Boy gun
carelessly handle, Poetry often wrote she, Hear occasionally music they,
Carpenter saw suddenly break.

CASE II. *Added words joined to each other, and then joined to the predicate — complex objective and complex adverbial elements.*

EXERCISES.

Point out the words which are added to each other, and explain their combined effect upon the predicate :—

(1. *Adjective added to the object.*) He lived a desolate life. They found agreeable companions. The merchant sold damaged goods. The sailor climbed the slippery mast. The vessel reached the desired haven. The islands yield delicious spices. The lady wrought a beautiful divan. The teacher received a handsome present.

(2.) (*Possessive case and object.*) She recognized Henry's voice. Helen read the Dairyman's Daughter. The boy heeded his father's advice. He hurt his finger. She lent her scissors. They kept their work. We rented our house. I lost my knife. They felt Fortune's frown.

(3.) (*Object and noun in opposition.*) They burned Huss the reformer. They executed Andre the spy. They read Chaucer the poet. They obeyed William the Conqueror. Herod beheaded John the Baptist.

(4.) (*An adverb added to an adverb.*) She hears very imperfectly. He performs more skilfully. They go too often. She sews very neatly. He managed most adroitly.

Fill the following blanks with appropriate words :—

(5.) (Object and adjective omitted.) He refused _____. He sough, _____ He drove _____. The merchant kept _____. The captain commanded _____. The clerk transcribed _____. The legislature passed _____. The committee appointed _____

(6.) (*Complex object and adverb wanting.*) The lawyer argued _____.
 _____. The physician healed _____. The company insured _____.
 _____. The president issued _____. He burned _____.
 The shoemaker hammered _____. The carpenter planed _____.

D. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE MODIFIED.

The subject and predicate of a sentence may both be modified at the same time, forming a complex subject and

a complex predicate ; as, “ Refreshing showers soon revived the drooping plants.”

We may thus have a sentence consisting of *five* parts or elements — a *subject*, a *predicate*, an *adjective element*, an *objective element*, and an *adverbial element*.

EXERCISES.

Point out the five elements in the following sentences, and tell whether they are simple or complex : —

The distinguished historian Xenophon skilfully conducted the dangerous retreat. Leonidas, the brave Spartan hero, gallantly defended the narrow pass. Cornelia, the noble Roman matron, proudly called her sons her jewels. Socrates, the Grecian philosopher, calmly drank the poisonous hemlock.

Add to the following subjects and predicates any elements which will render them complex ; also construct entire sentences having five elements : —

The fire burns. The cloud obscured. The planets revolve. The sun attracts. The moon has. The mines yield. The Scriptures afford.

SECTION II

SIMPLE SENTENCES — PHRASES — RELATIONS REPRESENTED.

When the parts of a sentence are brought together with an intervening word to show a connection, the relation is said to be *represented* ; as, “ The flag *of* the Union *was* floating *in* the breeze.”

Here the relation of *floating* to *flag* (predicate relation) is represented by *was* ; that of *Union* to *flag* (adjective relation) is represented by *of* ; that of *breeze* to *floating* (adverbial relation) is represented by *in*.

The connective and word following it constitute an element or component part of the sentence ; as, “ To STEAL (sub.) *is* base ” (pred.) Hence an element with its relation expressed is a phrase consisting, in its simplest state, of two words ; and in order to distinguish it from an element of the *first class*, which consists of only one word, the relation being implied, it is called a *phrase*, or element of the *second class*.

REM. — When *to*, *for*, or *that*, introduces the subject, it can have no antecedent term on which to depend, since the subject is that on which all other parts depend. Hence it is scarcely correct to say that *to*, *for*, or *that*, in such uses, shows a relation, although each is a relation-word; as, "To err is human." "For you to deceive is surprising." "That you should deceive is surprising."

A. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE NOT MODIFIED.

Here, again, the simplest possible sentence contains only two parts — a *subject* and a *predicate*.

When the unmodified subject consists of two words, it must be the *infinitive*, or first form of the verb, with "to" prefixed; as, "*To deceive* is criminal."

When the unmodified predicate consists of two parts, it is composed of the *copula* (*link* or *connective*) and the *attribute*. The attribute may be either a *participle*, an *adjective*, or a *noun* or *pronoun* in the nominative.

In the predicate two classes of relations should be distinguished, (1.) A *predicate* relation expressed by the copula, or some copulative verb, (Rem. 5, p. 53,) and (2.) A relation of *time* and *mode* expressed either by the *form* of the verb, or by some *auxiliary*; as, "We *were* successful." "We *shall have* written."

NOTE. — When the attribute is an adjective, a noun, or an active or passive participle, the former relation is shown by the copula, and the latter by the various forms of the copula; as, "He *was* active, *has been* active, *may have been* active," &c.

EXERCISES.

Point out the subject and predicate in the following examples, and show which has a connective: —

I. ONLY ONE CONNECTIVE.

(1.) (*Subject having a connective.*) To love exalts. To exercise strengthens. To walk invigorates. To forgive ennobles.

(2.) (*Attribute having a connective — participle.*) The boat is approaching. The fruit was destroyed. The ceremony was performed. The prunes were purchased. Her health is improving. Night is coming. Hopes were frustrated. Imagination was painting. Property was inherited. Estates are entailed. Science is progressing.

(3.) (*Attribute an adjective.*) Medicine is nauseous. Coffee is fragrant.

Oranges are delicious. Games are pleasant. Questions are hard. Heat is oppressive. Appearances are deceitful. Scholars are docile. Study is delightful. Geometry is difficult. Teachers are faithful. Mines are dark.

(4.) (*Attribute, a noun or pronoun.*) Gold is a metal. It is I. Otho is a king. He is the superintendent. You are my brother. Mary is her cousin. He is our physician. The gentleman is a politician. Dickens is an author. It is she. He is a merchant. Ireland is an island. Aspin wall is a city. Panama is an isthmus.

(5.) (*Copulative verbs, page 53.*) He seems inattentive. She was esteemed a lady. General Pierce is elected president. He became poor. The ore is called silver. I walk a queen. Aristides was called the Just. Pisistratus was called a tyrant. Moses was esteemed faithful. The proposition remains true.

Give the mode and tense of the following predicates, and explain the use of the auxiliaries, then change them to other modes and tenses :—

(6.) (*Simple relations of time and mode.*) They have written. He may come. Stop. You have returned. I went. She will play. They may attend. It will be. You can reply. I have heard. I study. You received. They might have known. I have exercised. We will promise. If he had thought. It can be done. He expelled. You will record. He bade. We walked. You might have been riding.

Point out the copula and attribute, and give the mode and tense of the copula :—

(7.) (*Predicate relation, and relations of time and mode combined.*) He may have been sick. You have been rich. That may be true. The story is false. Knowledge is power. It would have been wise. He should have been rewarded. It will have been finished. The relation is sustained. You were angry. The truth must be acknowledged. The man was wicked. It must be the same. He is alive. She will have been esteemed good.

(8.) (*Subject omitted.*) Be active. Be industrious. Be a man. Become wise. Appear calm. Remain standing. Be kind.

Fill the following blanks with appropriate words :—

(9.) (*Subject wanting.*) _____ is sitting. _____ is a scholar. _____ is delayed. _____ are mended. _____ was pleasant. _____ should be writing. _____ was grateful. _____ is freighted. _____ has been neglected. _____ is fulfilled. _____ had been allowed. _____ will be manufactured. _____ may be lost.

(10.) (*Attribute wanting.*) David was _____. Thou art _____. The vessel would have been _____. The cargo was _____. The port will be _____. The harbor is _____. The freight is _____. The machinery was _____. The lifeboat was _____. The passengers had been _____. The state rooms would have been _____. The wheelhouse was _____. The berths are _____. The waiters will be _____.

(11.) (*Copula wanting.*) The wind _____ boisterous. The rocks _____ dangerous. The danger _____ unheeded. The storm _____ terrible. The pumps _____ leaking. The waves _____ mountain high. Hope _____ abandoned. They _____ clinging. Many _____ despairing. No one _____ left. All _____ quiet. The sea _____ peaceful. They _____ lost. Friends _____ mourning.

(12.) (*Subject and attribute wanting.*) _____ might have been _____. _____ was _____. _____ is _____. _____ could have been _____. _____ must have seen _____. _____ wert _____. _____ wast _____.

_____ at _____ will be _____. _____ will have been _____
 _____ would have been regarded _____. _____ might have been con-
 sidered _____.

II. TWO CONNECTIVES.

(13.) (*Subject an infinitive.*) To err is human. To forgive is divine.
 To lie is wicked. To cheat is mean. To tattle is disgraceful. To betray
 is infamous.

(14.) (*The last examples changed.*) It is human to err, &c.

(15.) (*Predicate an infinitive or preposition and noun.*) His expectation
 is to ride. Her hope is to return. Her desire is to leave. The child is in
 good health. The pupil is without books. The lady is in sorrow.

III. THREE CONNECTIVES.

(16.) (*Subject and predicate infinitives.*) To pilfer is to steal. To love
 is to obey. To pray is to supplicate. To be good is to be happy.

B. SUBJECT MODIFIED.

The subject may be modified, —

(1.) By a single element — a phrase.

(2.) By two or more elements, one of which is a phrase.

When the unmodified adjective element consists of two words, it is either an *infinitive*, or a *phrase* composed of a *preposition*, (*connective*,) and its *object*. The object is either a *noun*, *pronoun*, or *participle* in the objective.

We have here, as in Section I., two cases: first, when both elements are added directly to the subject; and second, when they are first added to each other, and then added to the subject, forming a complex adjective element.

If the basis or principal element is of the first class, the complex element is of the first class, whatever the additions to it may be. So, again, if the basis is of the second class, the entire complex element is of the second class.

REM. — When two elements are added together, three cases may occur. The first, that is, the *basis*, or *principal* element, may have a connective, and the second may have none; the second may have a connective, and the basis none; both may have a connective; as, "The hope of *great* wealth." "William, *PRINCE* of *Orange*." "A collection of books of *travels*." In the second example, "William" is modified by a complex adjective element of the *first* class, because "prince," the basis, is joined to "William" without a connective. In the first example, "hope" is

modified by a complex adjective element of the second class, because the basis "of wealth" has its connection represented by "of." To this is added an element of the first class, "great." In the third example, both the basis and its dependent element are of the second class.

An element is said to be *transformed*, when it is changed from one form or class to another; as, "The dews of the morning have passed away" = The morning dews have passed away.

EXERCISES.

Point out the adjective element in the following examples, and explain the complex subject:—

I. ONLY ONE ADDED ELEMENT.

(1.) (*One adjective element—a phrase.*) Statues of marble were chiselled. Works on history were consulted. Men of science have appeared. Days of fasting were appointed. Bouquets of flowers were presented. Fields of grain were waving.

(2.) (*Adjective elements of Exercise, (1.) transformed.*) Marble statues were chiselled, 1.

II. TWO OR MORE ADDED ELEMENTS.

CASE I. Both elements added directly to the subject.

(3.) (*Two or more adjective elements of different classes.*) The laws of England were established. The first settlers at Plymouth were called Puritans. The great bard of Avon sleeps. Huge waves of the ocean overwhelmed. Many men of distinction arose.

(4.) (*The adjective element of the last exercise transformed.*) The English laws were established, &c.

In the following transform the adjective element of the first to an adjective element of the second class:—

(5.) (*Adjective element transformed.*) Brazen hinges were made = Hinges of brass were made. Solomon's temple was destroyed. A teacher's meeting was held. The lecturer's voice was heard. The convent's gates closed. New year's day has passed. An hour's delay occurred. The shepherd's dog barks. The huntsman's horn resounds.

Add to the following subjects an adjective element of the second class, and then change it to one of the first:—

(6.) (*Adjective element wanting.*) Men — were appointed. The resemblance — was striking. The office — was closed. The fate — was unknown. Men — will be rewarded. Gems — were found. The voice — was heard. The truth — was corroborated. The size — was great. The morals — improved.

letter to hasten his coming. They learned to sing in their childhood. We gathered the wild flowers in the meadow. He made the effort for their good. He taught the Bible class with great earnestness.

Fill the following blanks with appropriate adverbial elements of time, place, cause, or manner :—

(10.) (*Adverbial element wanting.*) The kangaroo lives _____. A treaty of peace was concluded _____. The consul resides _____. They wished to go _____. The cars will arrive _____. The visit was anticipated _____. My dear friend came _____. Cornwallis surrendered _____. He managed _____. Past events were recalled _____. The young lady was admired _____. I have been here _____. The work must be completed _____. We were sitting _____. The horse ran _____.

CASE II. *The elements added to each other.*

(11.) (*Objective first class, adjective second.*) I found masses of rock. They made a fire of coals. They elected a professor of history. She threw the apple of discord. They asked the son of Priam. He awarded the prize of beauty. He tended the flocks of sheep. He admired the beauty of Helen.

(12.) (*Indirect objective second, adjective second.*) The book was given to the chairman of the committee. He wrote to the friend of his sister. He sought for the truth of the report. The arrangement was made for the child of my brother.

(13.) (*Infinitive and adverbial, first or second.*) He desires to write elegantly. They attempted to remain at home. He seems to sleep quietly. Children love to change constantly. We hope to see clearly. I hope to write with great diligence. I wish to return in two years. We strive always to excel. He loves to rise with the early dawn.

(14.) (*Adverbial second, adjective first.*) The bear came from a dense forest. The child returned after a long absence. The governor departed for his southern tour. The experiments were made in a mysterious manner. The room was filled with the sweet perfume. He departed in the early morning. The fruit must be gathered before next week.

(15.) (*Adverbial second, adjective second.*) Moses stood on the summit of Pisgah. The city was situated at the head of the bay. We left on the morning of the new year. The Bible was translated by men of learning. Napoleon was banished to the Island of St. Helena. We sailed around the island of Juan Fernandez. I stood on the steps of the Capitol.

*Construct sentences of your own illustrating any of the above elements.**

D. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE MODIFIED.

A sentence may contain a subject and a predicate, each modified in any of the above ways.

* The teacher should multiply and vary these exercises according to the wants of the learner

EXERCISES.

Point out the subject and predicate, and point out the various modifications in the following :—

The news of his death filled his mother's heart with sorrow. To become an admiral was Nelson's noble resolution in his childhood. It is the work of a lifetime to become truly good. The children of my brother have come to visit me. The son of the king succeeded to the throne. The authorship of the book has never been ascertained with certainty.

Add elements to the following subjects and predicates, so as to illustrate any of the foregoing cases :—

The watch was given —. He attempts —. She manages —.
 William brought —. Lucy sought —. The pigeon flew —.
 He remained —. We spoke —. Mary came —. Grass grows —.
 Come —. Robert seems —. They love —. The
 three women —. Peter denied —. John learned —. Thou
 gavest —. Ruth — was —. The storm — caused —.
 The church — has been built —. My sister — came —.
 The news — was received —. The minister — has gone —.
 The time — is coming —.

SECTION III.

COMPLEX SENTENCES — CLAUSES — RELATIONS REPRESENTED.

The *propositions* which unite to form a sentence are called its *clauses*; as, "The wicked flee—when no man pursueth; but the righteous are bold—as a lion [is.]"

A proposition standing alone, or not affected by a connective, is a *simple sentence*. "Vice degrades."

A proposition under the influence of a subordinate connective is called a *subordinate* or *dependent* proposition or clause; as, "*When spring comes*, the flowers will bloom."

Here, "*when spring comes*" is a subordinate proposition. The subordinate connective *when* changes the simple sentence "*spring comes*" to a mere element of the other proposition to which it is joined. And as it is made to take the place of an adverb of time, it is called an *adverbial* proposition.

The proposition on which the subordinate one depends is called the *principal* proposition or clause; as, "*When spring comes*, the flowers will bloom."

An entire sentence, consisting of a principal and a

subordinate clause, is called a *complex sentence*; as, "I will remain until you return."

The dependent proposition, consisting of the connective and the subject and predicate following it, constitutes an element or component part of the complex sentence. It is called an element of the *third class*, to distinguish it from those of the other two classes.

When the subordinate clause takes the place of a noun, it is called a *substantive clause*; when it takes the place of an adjective, it is called an *adjective clause*; when it takes the place of an adverb, it is called an *adverbial clause*.

A. SENTENCES HAVING A SUBJECT AND PREDICATE ONLY.

A sentence may have for its subject, or for the attribute in the predicate, a dependent proposition; as, "*That the earth revolves on its axis* has been proved." "My hope is, *that you will recover your losses*."

EXERCISES.

(1.) (*The subject a substantive clause.*) That you have wronged me doth appear. Who wrote Junius's letters is uncertain. Why he left the city is a mystery. When the assembly will rise is unknown. Where the villain has gone has been ascertained. How shall we escape? is the question.

(2.) (*The attribute a substantive clause.*) My desire is, that you may succeed. His pretence was, that the storm of the preceding evening prevented his attendance. Our hope is, that no such results will follow. Your belief is, that the enemy has crossed the mountain. My determination is, that you shall attend school in the country.

Fill the blanks with appropriate clauses in the following:—

(3.) (*Subject wanting.*) _____ is apparent. _____ cannot be denied. _____ is desirable. _____ is deplorable. _____ is determined. _____ is believed. _____ is amusing. _____ is undesirable. _____ is unaccountable.

NOTE.—Let the learner change these examples and those in Exercise (1.) by using "it" as an introductory word to the sentence, placing the subject after the predicate, thus: "It doth appear that you have wronged me."

(4.) (*Attribute wanting.*) My determination is ———. His decision was ———. Her complaint was ———. Our hope is ———. Their expectation is ———. The remark was ———. The suggestion is ———.

B. SUBJECT MODIFIED.

The subject may be modified, —

(1.) By a single subordinate clause.

(2.) By two or more elements, one of which is a clause.

We have here, as before, —

CASE I. *Where both elements are added directly to the subject.*

CASE II. *Where the elements are added together, and then added to the subject, forming a complex adjective element.*

REM. — When two or more elements are added together, a variety of cases may occur. The basis may be a single word; this may be modified by a phrase; this again by a clause; as, "The pear, *FRUIT from a tree* which he had grafted, was found most delicious." Some seven or eight other combinations may take place. These can easily be formed by changing the order of the elements.

EXERCISES.

I. ONLY ONE ADDED ELEMENT.

Point out the adjective clauses in the following examples: —

(1.) (*Added element, an adjective clause.*) Evils which cannot be cured, must be endured. Rays which fall perpendicularly upon the earth, are called vertical. Lines which are drawn parallel to each other, will never meet. Money which is easily acquired is, for the most part, easily spent. Who steals my purse, steals trash. Whatever is, is right. Whoever sins, must suffer.

Transform the adjective clauses in the above exercises.

(2.) (*Adjective element transformed.*) Incurable evils must be endured. Rays falling, &c.

II. TWO OR MORE ADDED ELEMENTS.

CASE I. *Added elements joined directly to the subject.*

(3.) (*Adjective, and adjective clause.*) That lesson which caused him so much trouble, has since been mastered. The missing vessel, which he looked for so anxiously, has at last arrived. The unwearied pains which he took to accomplish his plans, insured their success. The distant land

which he discovered, was rich in mineral wealth. The bright sun, which foretells warmer weather, comes nearer to us in his course. The parlor fire, which burns so brightly, gives a cheerful light.

Transform the above adjective clauses.

(4.) (*Adjective clause transformed.*) That troublesome lesson has since been mastered, &c.

Convert the following adjective elements in Italics into clauses :—

(5.) (*Adjective element transformed.*) Trees *growing at the foot of the mountain* are taller than those on the summit. A *persevering* man will overcome obstacles. The *promised* rewards shall be given. A *discontented* man cannot be happy. The *great* globe is only a planet. Milton, the *poet*, was blind. The house of *my father* stands near the road. *My brother's* dog was killed. *Honorable* men presided.

Fill the blanks in the following examples with adjective clauses :—

(6.) (*Adjective clause wanting.*) The journey ——— was delightful. The opinion ——— seems to prevail. The reason ——— has never been satisfactorily given. The man ——— desires to please. Cicero ——— was put to death. Socrates ——— was a great philosopher. The scholar ——— should be commended. The pride ——— is contemptible. A man ——— will be rewarded. The tabernacle ——— contained the ark.

CASE II. *Added elements joined to each other — complex adjective element.*

Point out the complex adjective element in the following examples, and explain its parts :—

(7.) (*The basis an element of the first class.*) Thucydides, living when Pericles did, wrote a history of that splendid era. Peter the Hermit, who preached the first crusade, was a native of Amiens, in France. The physician, knowing that his advice was needed, hastened to visit his patient. The agent, suspicious that all was not right, examined the matter closely.

(8.) (*The basis an element of the second.*) The reply of the queen who came to prove the wisdom of Solomon was, that the half had not been told her. A desire to dwell where her mother-in-law dwelt induced Ruth to follow Naomi. The hope of Esther, who was the beautiful queen of Ahasuerus, was to save the Jewish nation. The mother of Samuel, who was devoted to the service of the Lord, brought him each year a little coat. The dreams of Joseph, who was the favorite son of Jacob, were the occasion of much ill will.

(9.) (*One of the first, one of the second, and one of the third.*) The bird, singing on the tree which stands in the garden, fills the air with its melody. The boy, eager to stand where he could witness the show, fell from the roof. The plan, changed in the manner which we have described, was unsatisfactory to the architect. The friend, coming at a time which was unexpected, was cordially received.

(10.) (*Two of the third.*) The stream which flows from the mountain range that bounds the valley on the east, takes its name from an early custom of the inhabitants. Æneas, who resided in Troy until it was destroyed by the Greeks, is said to have sailed to Italy. The ten commandments, which were given to Moses when he was upon the mount, were written on tables of stone. Cecrops, who founded Athens, to which afterwards Solon gave laws, is said to have been an Egyptian.

C. PREDICATE MODIFIED.

The predicate may be modified,—

(1.) By a single element of the third class.

(2.) By two or more elements, one of which is of the third class.

We have here, as before, —

CASE I. *Where both elements are added directly to the predicate.*

CASE II. *Where they are added together, and then added to the predicate.*

EXERCISES.

I. ONLY ONE ADDED ELEMENT.

Point out the complex predicates in the following examples, and explain the effect of the added clause :—

(1.) (*Substantive clause—objective.*) Will you tell why you are sad? He inquired, "Who knocks at the door?" Do you know that you have injured your friend? I thought that he was sincere. Many suppose that the planets are inhabited. He showed me wherein I had done wrong.

Fill the following blanks with substantive clauses in the objective :—

(2.) (*Objective clause wanting.*) He heard _____. The insane imagine _____, Who said _____? You may explain _____. The Stoics believe _____. The ancients believed _____. I forgot _____. I wish _____. He announced _____. The good ask _____. The farmer declared _____.

Transform the following words in Italics into objective clauses :—

(3.) (*Object transformed.*) I do not remember *the time of the lecture*. Show *the manner of its operation*. Will you tell *the object of this meeting*? We asked *him to stay*. The ancients believed *the earth to be a vast plain*. He anticipated *a pleasant evening*. Did you hear *of his success*? The general commanded *the army to be in readiness*.

Thus, I do not remember when the lecture will take place.

(4.) (*Adverbial clause—place.*) Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also. Where thou goest, I will go. Whither I go, ye cannot come. As far as the east is from the west, so far hath he removed our transgressions from us. They were sitting where the branches of a spreading elm protected them from the burning rays of the noonday sun.

Fill the following blanks with adverbial clauses denoting place :—

(5.) (*Adverbial clause wanting.*) _____, 'tis haunted, holy ground. I travelled _____. _____, there is no transgression. _____ nothing can be magnanimous. The soldier stopped _____. I will go _____. We must follow _____. He sank to repose _____.

(6.) (*Adverbial clause — time.*) We talked earnestly, as we were walking together. While I was musing, the fire burned. When two lines cross each other, the opposite angles are equal. The truth of the theorem will be acknowledged when you have proved it. I will write until he returns. I was sad when I thought of the changes that must come. Whilst I live, I will bless thy name.

Fill the following blanks with clauses denoting time :—

(7.) (*Adverbial clause wanting.*) You may go _____. We should assist the poor _____. He will return _____. I understood as a child _____. She sits _____. I was pained _____. The company separated _____. Supper was ready _____. They rejoiced _____.

(8.) (*Adverbial clause — cause.*) Ye shall not see me, because I go unto my Father. You should honor your parents, for this is the command of God. Cultivate agreeable manners, since these make you attractive. If you will read the report, you can judge for yourself. Should he stay late, I shall regret it. I have brought the work, that you may see it. I went myself, that I might ascertain the truth. We should take exercise, that we may be healthy. Though it was cold, the walk was pleasant. Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor. I love him, notwithstanding he is in error.

Fill the following blanks with clauses denoting cause :—

(9.) (*Adverbial clause wanting.*) The children sing _____. Many men live idly _____. He is a useful man _____. Take heed _____. We have no other means _____. Water will become ice _____. The plants will not grow _____. I will cut down this tree _____. Love your enemies _____. I shall stay at home _____. I shall see him _____. Will you answer my letter _____. How old would he have been _____?

NOTE.—It will be well for the teacher to give adverbial clauses of different kinds, and require the pupil to write, or give orally, a suitable principal clause, thus: Give a suitable principal clause for the following: "When the storm has subsided." "*We shall leave when,*" &c.

(10.) (*Adverbial clause — manner.*) The traveller was so weary that he fell asleep. Speak as you think. You may do as you said you should. Mary is as old as her cousin. The rose is more beautiful than the thistle. Happiness is more equally divided than some suppose. The more prudent one is, the more cautious he is. Can you describe the scene, as she can? Our lesson is the same as we had yesterday.

Fill the following blanks :—

(11.) (*Adverbial clause wanting.*) As a man thinketh _____. Will you be so good _____. The pupil wrote the copy just as _____. Make the mark just as _____. The hour seemed so long _____. It is so cold _____. I am so lonely _____. This apple is larger _____. The stream is as deep _____. The more I read it _____.

II. TWO OR MORE ADDED ELEMENTS.

CASE I. Added elements joined directly to the predicate.

(12.) (*Objective element, third class, adverbial first or second.*) He was soon convinced that the supposed object was an optical illusion. I at first believed that all these objects existed within me. During this moment of darkness, I imagined that I had lost the greatest part of my being. By

this exercise, I soon learned that the faculty of feeling was expanded over every part of my frame.

(13.) (*Adverbial element, third class, objective element, first class.*) The shepherd gave the alarm when he discovered the approach of the wolf. He closed his career before he had completed his thirty-sixth year. I have brought a passage that you may explain it. He visited the springs that he might improve his health. He would pull a mote out of his brother's eye, while he has a beam in his own. Place the package where it will not be injured.

(14.) (*Two adverbial elements, third class.*) Although it was very inconvenient, he came to see me when he was requested to come. As he passed on he felt his strength diminish from day to day, though his sufferings were by no means severe. Had he reformed, I would have assisted him, as I encouraged him to hope. If he can arrange his affairs, he will sail for Europe when the next steamer leaves.

(15.) (*Two elements of the third class, one objective, one adverbial.*) If such be the character of the youthful mind, am I to ask you what must be the appearances of riper years? When the farmer came down to break fast that morning, he declared that his watch had gained half an hour in the night. Although he had labored diligently, he found that his efforts were unavailing.

CASE II. *Added elements joined to each other — complex objective and complex adverbial elements.*

NOTE. — A word or phrase may first be added to the predicate, and a clause may be added to either of these, or the clause may be added directly to the predicate, and a word or phrase may be added to that. But it is generally best to regard a modified proposition as a simple element, unless one of the modifying elements is itself a proposition. Thus, in the following sentence, the clause in *Italics* may be regarded as simple: "We knew *that the heavy storm must do much damage to the harvest.*" But in the following the clause in *Italics* is complex: "We are persuaded *that the work will advance as soon as all obstacles shall have been removed.*"

Point out the complex predicate, and tell to which class it belongs.

(16.) (*Complex objective element, basis first.*) I soon perceived the fact that the study of geometry strengthened my reasoning powers, so that I could more readily trace relations of cause and effect. I experienced a pleasure which I cannot describe. You cannot understand the view which I take of the subject. They improved the opportunities which they enjoyed. Celsius invented the centigrade thermometer, which is considered the best by scientific men.

(17.) (*Complex adverbial element, basis second.*) He was saved by ropes which were thrown from the ship. The bard dwelt on those high lands which overlook the sea. Temptation comes at the time in which we are least prepared to meet it. He came for a purpose which will be satisfactorily explained.

Construct examples of your own, illustrating any of the previous elements, and take subjects from history or geography.

D. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE MODIFIED.

The subject and predicate may both be modified by subordinate clauses.

EXERCISES.

Point out the subordinate clauses in the following examples, and tell what they modify :—

The views which we have now unfolded show that a vigorous action of the mind is dependent upon a healthful condition of the physical functions. The letter which she expected came, as she had anticipated. A report that the enemy had capitulated was circulated before the embankments were completed.

Add subordinate clauses to the subject and predicate of each of the following sentences :—

He ——— must believe ———. Many ——— were journeying ———.
The reason ——— was so unsatisfactory ———. Oranges ——— are found
———. The wicked ——— will be punished ———. The pretensions
——— convinced us ———. The wind ——— causes ———. The ques-
tion ——— was so answered ———. They ——— shall receive ———.
He ——— will learn ———. Oxygen ——— is the agent ———.

Construct sentences containing either substantive, adjective, or adverbial clauses. Say something about domestic affairs — something about the growth of flowers — something about the cultivation of silk — something about geography — relate some incident in the life of Washington, Franklin, Richard I., Queen Elizabeth, or write about any other subject which your teacher shall mention.

SECTION IV.

COMPOUND SENTENCES—SIMILAR PARTS COMBINED.

NOTE. — In the foregoing sections the parts of a sentence are united — an adjective, a verb, or a noun to a noun ; a noun or pronoun to a verb or adjective ; an adverb to a verb, an adjective, or an adverb ; and the relations in Sections II. and III. are represented by connectives, while in Section I. the same relations are unrepresented, being indicated either by the position or altered form of the element itself. The parts united are, for the most part, different parts of speech — different in the functions which they perform, different in the rank which they hold, one being principal, and the other subordinate to it ; and often different in form or class, one being a single word, another a phrase or clause. But it often happens that we wish to unite two elements which shall be the same part of speech, which shall stand in the same relation to some other element, which shall be of the same form or class, and perform the same functions. Such elements are united by a peculiar class of conjunctions, called *Córdínate Conjunctions*, (See Conjunctions, p. 104,) because they join parts *córdínate* with each other.

Instead of parts, one of which depends upon and modifies another, we may unite two or more similar elements, by

placing them in the same relations to some other element as, "*Peter and John* went up to the temple."

Here *Peter* and *John* are both nouns, both used as subject, and both in the same relation to the predicate, and in respect to each other they are placed in a relation of perfect equality. Hence they are *coördinate*, that is, in the same rank.

Two cases may occur —

(1.) The coördinate parts may be either of the five elements of a sentence, the combination being called a *compound element*; as, "*She reads and writes.*"

(2.) The coördinate parts may be entire propositions, the combination being a *compound sentence*; as, "*Exalt her, and she shall promote thee.*"

CASE I. *Coördinate elements.*

EXERCISES.

Point out the compound elements in the following examples, and fill the blanks wherever elements are wanting: —

(1.) (*Compound subject, first class.*) Exercise and temperance strengthen the constitution. Virtue and vice form a strong contrast to each other. John and James reside at home this summer. The rocks and hills of New England will remain till the last conflagration. And the chief priests and scribes stood and vehemently accused him.

(2.) (*Compound subject, second class.*) To be or not to be, that is the question. To soothe thy sickness, and to watch thy health, shall be my pleasure. To toil for, and yet to lose, the reward of virtue, is the hard lot of man. To deprive me of liberty, to torture me, or to imprison me, is not your right. To live temperately, to avoid excitement, and to take alternate exercise and rest, are essential to health.

(3.) (*Compound subject, third class.*) That their poetry is almost uniformly mournful, and that their views of nature were dark and dreary, will be allowed by all who admit the authenticity of Ossian. Why we are thus detained, or why we receive no intelligence from home, is mysterious. Where he will obtain the means, and how he will be relieved from the pressure, is extremely uncertain.

(4.) (*One component part wanting.*) Wit ——— and ——— are captivating. Eloquence and ——— are gifts of nature. Love and ——— mingled in the regard of Helen's eye. Why ———, or why ———, interests me very much. That the book will be successful, and that ———, will be shown by its extensive circulation.

(5.) (*Compound predicate, relation not expressed.*) And the king went up to the chamber over the gate, and wept. No fascinated throng weep, and melt, and tremble at his eloquence. Approach, and behold, while I lift from his sepulchre its covering.

(6.) (*Compound predicate, relation expressed.*) The present life is not wholly prosaic,* precise, tame, and finite. This is peace, and the true

* In coördinate constructions, the connective, or any common part, is omitted after the first element. (See Ellipsis, p. 193.)

happiness of man. He is willing to risk his life in its defence, and is conscious that he gains protection while he gives it. I can be contented and fully happy in the good which I possess.

(7.) (*Compound predicate, third class.*) My proposition is, that your son shall be sent to college, that you shall go abroad, and that the house shall be closed during your absence. His direction was, that the patient should take a great deal of exercise, that his diet should be very carefully attended to, and that every thing of an exciting nature should be avoided. His answer was, that he approved the plan of the measure, and that he was confident of its success.

(8.) (*Adjective element, compound, first class.*) The middle, the fa rest, and the most conspicuous places in cities are chosen for the erection of statues and monuments. Wise and good men are frequently unsuccessful. A bright and glorious prospect is opened by Christianity. Lord Cornwallis, the English peer and general, surrendered at the battle of Yorktown.

(9.) (*Adjective element, compound, second.*) The parting of Hector and Andromache is beautifully described by Homer. The reign of William and Mary commenced with the glorious revolution of 1688. The tops of Olympus and Parnassus reached above the clouds. The grating of the old-fashioned bars and bolts was answered by the clash of chains.

(10.) (*Adjective element, compound, third.*) A cottage which is shaded with trees, and which is situated far from the noise and bustle of the city, is a very pleasant retreat. That faith which is one, which renews and justifies all who possess it, which confessions and formularies can never adequately express, is the property of all alike. The baron, who knows our manners, and lives near our country, will apprise you of the time and means to be their protector.

(11.) (*Adjective element wanting.*) A ——— and ——— behavior makes a person contemptible. Her ——— and ——— hands helped to bar the door against want. Every ——— or ——— thought is a violation of our obligation to our Maker. A ——— and ——— influence breathes around the dwellings of the dead. The artist who ———, and ———, is coming to reside in the city.

(12.) (*Compound objective element, first class.*) And he said, Behold my mother and my brethren. I examined its form and its color. I note his dress, the sound of his voice, and the turn of his countenance. Pope wrote the Messiah, and the Essay on Criticism.

(13.) (*Compound objective element, second.*) It teaches us to be thankful for all favors received, to love each other, and to be united. He chooses to die, and to redeem his friend. She is led to engage in calmer pursuits, and seek for gentler employment.

(14.) (*Compound objective element, third.*) He heard that his wife had fallen a lingering sacrifice to penury and sorrow; that his children were gone to seek their fortunes in distant or unknown climes; and that the grave contained his nearest and most valuable friends. He found that every thing was changed, that strangers inhabited the home of his childhood, and that he was alone in the world. I know that the eye of the public is upon me, and that I shall be held responsible for every act.

(15.) (*One objective element wanting.*) I have neither wit, nor ———, nor ———. It gave him the manners and ——— of the most perfect gentleman. The warm sunny days will cause the grass to grow, and ———. He found that the lecture was postponed, and ———.

(16.) (*Adverbial element, compound.*) How bright and goodly shines the

moon! When and where he lived, I cannot tell you. The voice of the preacher grew fainter and fainter.

(17.) (*Compound adverbial element, second.*) With trembling limbs and faltering steps, he departed from his mansion of sorrow. I have spent my days, in darkness and error. I see new meaning, every hour, in his arch eye and speaking face. With surprise and joy, she espied a monk supporting Marmion's head.

(18.) (*Compound adverbial element, third.*) When a few more friends have left, a few more hopes deceived, and a few more changes mocked us, we shall be brought to the grave, and shall remain in the tomb. He takes us from earth that he may lead us to heaven, that he may refine our nature from all its principles of corruption, that he may share with us his own immortality, that he may admit us to his everlasting habitation, and that he may crown us with his eternity.

(19.) (*One adverbial element wanting.*) She studied diligently and ——. The great Scipio treated his captives with magnanimity and ——. Howard spent his life in relieving the distressed, ——, and ——. Every one rejoices when spring comes, ——, and ——. She will return before we expect her, and ——.

(20.) (*Elements both complex and compound.*) To carry on with effect an expensive war, and yet be frugal of the public money; to oblige those to serve whom it may be delicate to offend; to conduct, at the same time, a complicated variety of operations; to concert measures at home, answerable to the state of things abroad; and to gain every valuable end in spite of opposition from the envious and disaffected, — this is more difficult than is generally thought.

CASE II. *Coördinate clauses.*

(21.) (*Copulative clauses.*) I was hungry, and ye gave me no meat. Green is the most refreshing color to the eye; hence Providence has made it the common dress of nature. It is sown a natural body, it is raised a spiritual body. Not only am I instructed by this exercise, but I am also invigorated. I was eyes to the blind, and feet was I to the lame. We shall feel the same revolution of seasons, and the same sun and moon will guide the course of our year. You know I love a country life, and here we have it in perfection. Submission and obedience are the lessons of her life, and peace and happiness her reward.

(22.) (*Adversative clauses.*) She took them, but she could not tear them from me. The man was communicative enough, but nothing was distinct in his mind. We must not expect that our roses will grow without thorns; but then they are useful and instructive thorns, which, by pricking the fingers of the too hasty plucker, teach future caution. The tunes are extremely gay and lively, yet they have something in them wonderfully soft. I believe there are few heads capable of making Sir Isaac Newton's calculations, but the result of them is not difficult to be understood by a moderate capacity.

(23.) (*Alternative clauses.*) Never utter any profane speeches, nor make a jest of any Scripture expressions. Learn your lesson, otherwise you must lose your rank. I neither learned wisdom, nor have I a knowledge of the holy. Either he will hate the one, and love the other, or else he will hold to the one, and despise the other. Neither hath this man sinned, nor his parents.

(24.) (*Compound sentences with complex members.*) When he rose every

sound was hushed, and when he spoke every eye was fixed upon him. If the means were in themselves bad, you would not say that the end justified them; or if the means were good, you would not say that they justified all the results which might flow from their use. You take my house, when you do take the prop that doth sustain my house; you take my life, when you do take the means whereby I live. Employ thy time well, if thou meanest to gain leisure; and since thou art not sure of a minute, throw not away an hour. If you would have your business done, go; if not, send.

ELEMENTS.

NOTE.—A careful examination of the preceding sections, with a proper attention to each construction, will prepare the learner for the distinctions here to be made. Each definition should be verified by a reference to the section and exercise which illustrates it.

An element is an expression which represents an *idea* and its *relation*; as, "He ——— walked ——— in the garden."

REM.—An element of a *sentence* is either the subject or predicate, or some part immediately connected with one of these. Every remote element, that is, one not immediately connected with the subject or predicate, is to be regarded as a component part of a complex element of the sentence; as, "He ——— walked ——— in the garden of the prince." Here, *of the prince* is a remote element, dependent immediately on *garden*, and is a component part of the complex element, *in the garden of the prince*.

CLASSES OF ELEMENTS.

Elements may take three different *forms*, called the *first*, *second*, and *third* classes.

(1.) When the relation and idea are both represented by one word, without a connective, we have an element of the *first class*; as, "John ——— writes."

(2.) When the relation is expressed by one word, and the idea by another, forming a phrase consisting of a preposition and its object, or an infinitive, we have an element of the *second class*; as, "John lives ——— in hope." "He desires ——— to improve."

(3.) When the relation is represented by one word, and the idea or thought by a proposition, forming a clause consisting of a connective, a subject, and a predicate, we have an element of the *third class*; as, "I know — that he told me the truth."

EXERCISES.

Point out the elements in the following sentences, and tell to what class they belong:—

On a sunny bank buttercups are bright. The trees are leafless. The gathering darkness of night comes on. A life of prayer is the life of heaven. Thy brother shall rise again. The ransomed shout to their glorious King.

where no sorrow shades the soul as they sing. The darkness waven wider its sable wings. With these words I quitted him. She appears to know every thing. Swans sing before they die.

The elements, according to their rank in construction, are either *principal* or *subordinate*.

A *principal* element is one on which others depend ; as,
 “ A good MAN HONORS any calling.”

Here, *man* and *honors* are principal elements.

A *subordinate* element is one which depends upon a principal.

A, good, calling, and any, in the above example, are subordinate elements.

The principal elements are the *subject* and the *predicate*,
 as, “ Time flies.”

REM. 1. — The subject naturally takes the first rank, and is the only element which is, strictly speaking, independent. The predicate, being an attribute of the subject, is naturally dependent upon it, borrowing its *number, person, and case*, and in some languages its *gender* also, directly from the subject. Yet in the construction of a proposition, there is a mutual dependence ; there can be no subject without a predicate, and no predicate without a subject, and no sentence without both. Hence they may well be called principal elements, although there is in the nature of things a dependence of the one upon the other.

REM. 2. — The subject may be known by its answering the questions, *Who?* or *What?* with the predicate ; as, *Who wrote?* *Ans.* “ *Frank wrote.*” *What was written?* *Ans.* “ *A letter was written.*”

REM. 3. — The subject may be, —

- (1.) A *noun* or *pronoun* ; as, “ *Angels* appeared.” “ *He* wept.”
- (2.) The *adjective* or *participle* used as a noun ; as, “ The *wise* protect themselves.” “ The *persevering* will conquer.”
- (3.) Any *word, syllable, or letter*, used as a noun ; as, “ *Is* is a verb” “ *A* is a vowel.” “ *Re* is a prefix.”
- (4.) An *infinitive* ; as, “ *To labor* is to exert ourselves.”
- (5.) A *proposition* ; as, “ *That this story is true*, is very evident.”

REM. 4. — The predicate may be known by its answering the question, *What is said of — ?* *What — do, or doing?* as, *What is said of the water?* *Ans.* “ *The water is clear.*” *What is George doing?* *Ans.* “ *George is reading.*”

REM. 5. — The predicate consists essentially of two parts — the *copula* and *attribute* ; as, “ *The ocean is deep.*”

REM. 6. — The copula is some modification of the verb *to be*, (*am, is, was, were, &c.*)

REM. 7. — The attribute may be, —

- (1.) A *participle* ; as, “ *I am walking.*” “ *He is loved.*”
- (2.) An *adjective* ; as, “ *The moon is pale.*”
- (3.) A *noun* or *pronoun* ; as, “ *Gold is a metal.*” “ *I am he.*”

(4.) An *infinitive* or *phrase*; as, "He is to sail." "George is to be educated." "They are without money."

(5.) A *subordinate proposition*; as, "My intention is, that the whole work shall be completed before the appointed time."

REM. 8. — When both parts are blended, the word which represents them is always a verb; as, "He is walking" = He walks.

The subordinate elements are the *adjective element*, the *objective element*, and the *adverbial element*; as, "The good man performs his duty faithfully."

REM. 1. — The adjective element may be known by its being connected with a noun or pronoun, without an assertion, and by its answering the questions *What? What kind of? How many? Whose? Of what? Which?* as, *What kind of hat?* Ans. "A black hat."

REM. 2. — An adjective element, when both the relation and idea are expressed by one word, is either an *adjective* or a *substantive*. When the relation and idea are expressed separately, it is either a phrase, consisting of a preposition and object, or an infinitive, or a subordinate proposition.

REM. 3. — The objective element may be known by its being connected with a transitive verb, and by its answering the questions *What or Whom?* as, *What has he brought?* Ans. "He has brought an orange." *Whom do you see?* Ans. "I see David."

REM. 4. — The objective element, when both the relation and the idea are expressed by one word, is a *noun* or *pronoun*. When the relation and idea are expressed separately, it is either an infinitive or a subordinate proposition.

REM. 5. — The adverbial element may be known by its answering the questions *Where? When? Why? How?* with a verb, adjective, or adverb; as, *How does she play?* Ans. "She plays correctly."

REM. 6. — The adverbial element, when both the relation and idea are expressed by one word, is an *adverb*. When the relation and idea are expressed separately, it is a preposition and object, or a subordinate proposition.

EXERCISE.

Point out the different elements in the following sentences :—

The flowers of the meadow she plucks no longer. He was not clad in costly raiment. Such was the state of Eden when the serpent entered its bowers. Our life is compared to a falling leaf. He who has tamed the elements shall not live the slave of his own passions. We love liberty. The crow, which had found the cheese, signified her joy with a loud voice. Ariovistus replied that he had crossed the Rhine, not by his own will, but entreated and hired by the Gauls. The boy begged that they would come to his assistance.

Aside from connectives, the elements, in regard to their nature, are either *substantive*, *adjective*, or *adverbial*.

REM. — This classification supposes the pure verb (copula) to be only a connective, and whatever is united or blended with this verb, making it a mixed verb, to be of the nature of an adjective.

We have, therefore, —

- (1.) Substantive words, phrases, or clauses ; as, *man, to sing, that he should be detected.*
- (2.) Adjective words, phrases, or clauses ; as, *wise man, a man of wisdom, a man who is wise.*
- (3.) Adverbial words, phrases, or clauses ; as, *rising early, rising at sunrise, rising before the sun rises.*

EXERCISE.

Point out the substantive, adjective, and adverbial elements, and tell whether they are words, phrases, or clauses.

We went to ride in the early morning. The beautiful rose bears the name of the "Cloth of Gold." The invitation was accepted with great pleasure. He labored diligently to complete the work. It is easy to maintain authority where it is once established. He was a youth full of promise. They mourned his untimely death. Shenstone wrote the "Village Schoolmistress," to immortalize the teacher of his boyhood. He improved rapidly under the tuition of so distinguished a teacher. He thought that she would do much good. The adage, "Knowledge is Power," is verified by experience.

Elements, in regard to their *state* or *condition*, may be *simple, complex, or compound*.

A *simple* element is a single expression for an idea and its relation, without modification or addition ; as, "We left — *early*." "We left — *at dawn*." "We left — *as day dawned*."

A *complex* element is a simple element modified by another element subordinate to it ; as, "We left — *very early*." "We left — *at early dawn*." "We left — *as the day first dawned in the east*."

REM. — So a complex sentence is a simple sentence modified by another sentence subordinate to it ; as, "I perceived that the party had separated."

A *compound* element is a combination of two or more coördinate simple or complex elements ; as, "We work — *early and late*." "We are employed — *in the morning, at noon, and at night*." "We were travelling — *when the wind was blowing, and when the storm was beating against our carriage*."

REM. — So a compound sentence is the combination of two or more simple or complex sentences ; as, "He that trusteth in his riches *shall fall* ; but the righteous shall flourish as a branch."

EXERCISE.

Point out the simple, complex, and compound elements in the following:—

"How have you secured this good order?" said we to the teacher. In early childhood, the conscience is most active. During three years, he made surprising progress in useful knowledge. Peace, tranquillity, and innocence shed their mingled delights around him. Every door, and portal, and avenue is thrown open. He thinks not of duty, or of future usefulness. When the poor and needy seek water, and there is none, and their tongue faileth for thirst, I, the Lord will hear them, I, the God of Israel, will not forsake them

RELATION OF ELEMENTS.

All elements or parts of a sentence, are united in one or the other of two general relations—a relation of *equality*, or a relation of *dependence*.

The former subsists between coördinate elements; the latter between a subordinate element and its principal; as, "The *sun* and the *moon* stood *still*."

When an element is brought into a coördinate relation with another, the former has no control over the latter; but when an element is placed in a subordinate relation to another, the latter, as *principal*, often controls the case, mode, tense, number, or person of the former, regarded as its *subordinate*.

When the influence of the principal element is such as to cause the subordinate to take its own modifications, (number, person, case,) the latter is said to *agree* with the former—when the subordinate element is made to take a certain form, as the possessive or objective case, it is said to be *governed* by the principal, or by the word which shows the dependent relation, as the preposition, for example.

REM. 1.—The relation between the subject and predicate is called the *predicate* relation, (See Rem. 1. p. 139;) that of the noun and the adjective element is called the *adjective* or *attributive* relation; that of the objective element and the transitive verb is called the *objective* relation; and that of the adverbial element and the verb, adjective, or adverb, is called the *adverbial* relation. The last three are always dependent relations.

REM. 2.—Any element in a subordinate relation may have another in

the same subordinate relation joined to it coordinately; as, "A good and faithful servant."

Relations may be either *represented* or *unrepresented*, as, "The boy *was* running *with* rapidity" = The boy ran rapidly.

REM. — In elements of the first class, the dependent relations are always unrepresented. (See "Construction," Sec. I.) In those of the second class, the dependent relations are expressed by appropriate connectives, called *prepositions*. (See "Construction," Sec. II.) And in those of the third class, the dependent relations are expressed by conjunctive words called *subordinate connectives*. (See "Construction," Sec. III.) Coordinate relations are always expressed by a class of connectives called *coordinate conjunctions*. (See "Construction," Sec. IV.)

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, point out the different relations; tell whether they are represented or unrepresented:—

The pope went to Paris to crown the emperor. If it should storm, the lecture will be postponed. The latest intelligence was reported by the telegraph. I do not fancy the picture. We hear of several removals in the different departments. The president's levee was thronged, and was a very brilliant affair. The statement that the treaty was concluded, was a mistake. He only asks their sympathies. Let agriculture clothe our vast wastes with waving plenty. I wish to speak with some reserve upon this subject. Providence has placed us between the two great world oceans, and we shall always be a maritime power of the first order.

In the following sentences, trace the relation of the last word back to the subject, describing each as you pass:—

It was not thus with the places I visited during the short space of cessation from task and toil that the week allowed. I have lately traversed my native village without discovering one familiar face. Our early recollections are pleasing to us because they look not on the morrow.

Thus, in the sentence, "I will simply say that the story I am about to relate has its foundation in an old legend of the first settlers of the country," *country* is a subordinate element, related to settlers by means of *of*; *settlers* is an element subordinate to *legend*, and having its relation represented by *of*; *legend* is subordinate to *foundation*—its relation is represented by *in*; *foundation* is related subordinately to *has*—its relation is unrepresented; *has* is related to *story*; they are mutually dependent upon each other—relation unrepresented. Combined as a proposition, they are related subordinately to *will say*, by *that*, and *will say* is related to *I*, which stands as the subject of the sentence.

Reverse the order, and trace the relation of the subject down through the predicate to the remotest term.

Any term being given, state, in connection with it, its antecedent, or principal term. Thus, in the sentence above, "country" being given, say "SETTLERS of the country."

ENTIRE SENTENCES.

A sentence, considered as an entire structure, either *declares* something, asks a *question*, expresses a *command*, or contains an *exclamation*.

A *declarative* sentence is one which declares something; as, "The truth will prevail."

An *interrogative* sentence is one which asks a question; as, "Wilt thou be made whole?"

An *imperative* sentence is one which expresses a command; as, "Put up thy sword into its sheath."

An *exclamatory* sentence is one which contains an exclamation; as, "How art thou fallen!"

EXERCISES.

Point out the different kinds of sentences in the following:—

I heard their drowning cry mingling with the wind. And has it come to this? The stores of his mind were inexhaustible. Give it here, my honest fellow. Think on my chains! I will paint the death dew on his brow! Is any sick among you? Stands Scotland in its place? Why weeps the Muse of England? Over these matchless talents Probité threw her brightest lustre. Let him not faint. Screen not a traitor from the law. The starless grave shall shine the portal of eternal day! Sin not against thy God! When will you finish my picture? Thou wouldst not have me make a trial of my skill upon my child!

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

An interrogative sentence relates either to the *whole* or a *part* of a corresponding declarative sentence, called the *answer*, or *responsive*; as, "*Whom* did you see?" *Ans. John*; that is, "I saw *John*." "Did you see John?" *Yes* = I did see John.

Interrogative sentences are of two kinds — *direct* and *indirect*.

A *direct* interrogative refers to the *whole* of the sentence which answers the question, and is always introduced by a verb or its auxiliary; as, "Did you see John?" *Yes* = I did see John.

REM. — Direct interrogative sentences are answered by *yes* or *no*. When uttered, they end with the rising inflection.

An *indirect* interrogative sentence always refers to some *part* or *element* of the sentence which answers the question, and is always introduced by some interrogative word, which corresponds with the element inquired for; as, *Who* came? *John* came. *When* did he come? He came *in the morning*. *Which* pen have you? I have the *gold* pen.

REM. 1. — Indirect interrogative sentences cannot be answered by *yes* or *no*. They commonly end with the falling inflection.

REM. 2. — The interrogative is of the nature of the substantive, adjective, or adverb, to correspond to the element inquired for.

REM. 3. — Indirect questions are commonly answered elliptically by introducing simply the element referred to, the rest of the answer being borrowed from the question; as, "Where do you live?" "In Smithfield" = I live in Smithfield.

EXERCISES.

Point out the direct and indirect interrogative sentences in the following examples; in the indirect, tell which element is inquired for:—

Why could not we cast him out? Believe ye that I am able to do this? Whose is this image and superscription? Am I to forgive if he will not repent? When can you hope for another, if this be neglected? Hast thou seen the doors of the shadow of death? Do all speak with tongues? Why do I suffer so many sorrows? Will you suffer your glory to be sullied? Who can estimate the influence of the Sabbath school? At what time this evening will the moon rise? Am I my brother's keeper? Have all the gifts of healing? Why, what evil hath he done? Shall the Turk still pollute the soil sanctified by the brightest genius?

TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES.

Whenever a sentence undergoes a change, either by *altering*, *suppressing*, or *transposing* any of its parts, it is said to be transformed; as, "After he had discovered Hispaniola, Columbus returned to Spain" = *Having discovered Hispaniola*, Columbus returned to Spain = Columbus returned to Spain, *after he had discovered Hispaniola*.

I. ALTERED CONSTRUCTIONS.

We may alter the forms of a sentence, or of an element, in the following cases:—

(1. We may use the active for the passive voice, or the passive for the

active; as, "*Columbus discovered America*" = *America was discovered by Columbus.*

(2.) We may change an element of the first class to one of the second or one of the second to one of the first; as, "*A morning ride is refreshing*" = *A ride in the morning is refreshing.*

(3.) A complex sentence may be changed to a simple sentence (or a *contracted complex*) by abridging its subordinate clause; as, "*When the shower had passed, we resumed our journey*" = *The shower having passed we resumed our journey.*

REM. — A proposition is abridged by changing the predicate to a participle, or an infinitive; as, "*The winds blow*" = *The winds blowing or to blow.* The predicate relation is destroyed, and the attribute is placed in an adjective relation to the subject. For the method of disposing of the subject in such constructions, see *Abridged Propositions*, page 186.

(4.) A simple sentence may be changed to a complex by expanding any of its elements into a proposition; as, "*A merciful man is merciful to his beast*" = *A man who is merciful, is merciful to his beast.*

(5.) A complex sentence may be changed to a compound, by raising the subordinate clause to an equal rank with the principal, and changing the subordinate connective to a coordinate; as, "*When spring comes, the flowers will bloom*" = *The spring will come, and the flowers will bloom.*

(6.) A compound sentence may be changed to a complex, by depressing one of its propositions into a subordinate rank; as, "*Man has a moral sense, and therefore he is an accountable being*" = *Since man has a moral sense, he is an accountable being.*

(7.) A question for gaining assent may be changed into a declarative sentence, or a declarative sentence may be changed into a question for gaining assent; as, "*Will he plead against me with his great power?*" = *He will not plead against me with his great power.*

REM. A question for gaining assent, or a question of appeal, is employed, not when the speaker is in doubt, but when he wishes to gain the assent of the hearer, and, as it were, commit him to his own views. Hence, when the speaker expects a negative answer, he omits the negative in the question; and when he expects an affirmative answer, he inserts the negative in the question. In the declarative sentence, the opposite of this rule should prevail. See example above.

(8.) Any sentence is said to be *reconstructed*, or *recast*, when the former construction is wholly disregarded; as, "*That which agrees with the will of God should please us*" = *We should be pleased with whatever is agreeable to the will of our heavenly Father.*

EXERCISES.

(1.) *Use the active for the passive, and the passive for the active, in the following examples, supplying the agent whenever omitted:—*

He has bestowed a great many favors upon us. Gold has been discovered in Australia. I will call you in the morning. The work was finished at the appointed time. A battle was fought at Waterloo. He was buried in Westminster Abbey. They spent the summer at the sea shore. He made great progress in his profession.

(2.) *In the following examples, change any element of the first class to one of the second, and the reverse:—*

A morning walk is conducive to health. A marble statue was placed in the grove. Joseph's father gave him a coat of many colors. Jonathan was the friend of David. They reached the top of the mountain. Achilles was a Grecian hero. The siege of Troy continued ten years. The city of Corinth was taken by Mummius. Her sister's death was a great affliction. The gentleman's character is above suspicion. My son, hear the instruction of thy father, and forsake not the law of thy mother.

(3.) *Change the following complex sentences to simple or contracted complex sentences by abridging the subordinate clause :—*

Since such is the fact, you have no cause for solicitude. When you look into the Bible, you see holiness and purity its great characteristics. Because I tell you the truth, ye believe me not. A man who is deceitful can never be trusted. A short time since, and he who is the occasion of our sorrows was the ornament of his country. Happy is the man that findeth wisdom. I do not know where he is concealed.

(4.) *Expand the Italicized elements, in the following simple sentences, into subordinate clauses :—*

The crocuses, *blooming in the garden*, attracted the bees. Hannibal, *the Carthaginian general*, conquered the Romans in four battles. *Having accumulated a fortune*, he will retire from business. We told him *to leave. Gliding along the edge of the horizon*, a distant sail attracted our attention. He should have perished upon the brink, *before attempting to cross it*. The body, *having reached its maturity*, falls inevitably into decay.

(5.) *Change the examples in exercise (3) into compound sentences, and then back again to complex.*

MODEL.

Such is the fact, and therefore you have no cause for solicitude = Since such is the fact, you have no cause for solicitude.

(6.) *Change the following sentences, the declarative into interrogative, and the interrogative into declarative :—*

He listened to the music of the running brook. He found pleasure in giving instruction. He made the experiment successfully. Were they not gone longer than you expected? Was not the lecture interesting? Hast thou commanded the morning since thy days, and caused the dayspring to know his place? Have the gates of death been opened unto thee? Declare, if thou knowest it all. You may be allowed to speak.

(7.) *Reconstruct the following :—*

He left the home of his childhood. He came unexpectedly. Death is the common lot of all. The season for the singing of birds is near. Honesty is the best policy. Reverence the aged. A river in France is called the Loire. Cold is the hearth within their bowers. He paused upon the brink. Let me have leave to speak. It was the night of the soul. Like a spectre in the night, the grandeur of Rome has vanished. Beauty dwells in all our paths.

II. ELEMENTS SUPPRESSED. — ELLIPSIS.

When the construction requires the repetition of any part of the sentence, that part, if the meaning is sufficiently evident, may be *suppressed or omitted* by ellipsis.

NOTE. — For all the varieties of ellipsis, see “ Peculiarities and Idioms.”

By an ellipsis of a common part, a compound sentence may be reduced to a *partial* or *contracted compound* sentence ; as, “ Bacon was a distinguished writer, Shakspeare was a distinguished writer, and Butler was a distinguished writer ” = Bacon, Shakspeare, and Butler were distinguished writers.

By supplying ellipses, any contracted compound sentence may be changed to a complete compound ; as, “ The king and queen were absent ” = The king was absent, and the queen was absent.

EXERCISES.

Take any of the examples in “ Construction,” Sec. IV., and convert them into complete compounds ; then change them back to partial or contracted compounds.

III. ELEMENTS TRANSPOSED.

The arrangement of the elements is the *position* which they take in the sentence.

There are two kinds of arrangement, the *natural* and the *inverted* or *transposed*.

In a proposition, by the natural order, the subject is placed before the predicate ; the adjective element is placed before the noun when of the first class, but after the noun when of the second or third ; the objective element is placed after the verb which governs it ; and the adverbial element commonly follows the objective element ; as, “ The good boy studied his geography attentively.” “ The kingdom of Sardinia is situated in the south of Europe.”

An element is *transposed* whenever it is placed out of its natural order ; as, “ Great is Diana of the Ephesians.” “ Copernicus these wonders told.” “ Wisely were his efforts directed.”

EXERCISES.

Point out the elements which are transposed in the following sentences, and then arrange them in their natural order : —

Welcome thou art to me. From the king I come to learn how you have dealt with him. For now his son is duke. Unto my mother's prayers, I bend the knee. Infected be the air whereon they ride. Accursed be the tongue that tells me so. How bright and goodly shines the moon! How beautiful is all this visible world!

Transpose any of the elements in the following; tell whether the sentence is thereby improved or not : —

A short time since, and he who is the occasion of our sorrows was the ornament of his country. Approach, and behold, while I lift from his sepulchre its covering. Where is the mother who would willingly forget the infant that perished like a blossom from her arms, though every recollection is a pang? But, as if this were not enough, the unfortunate victims of this law are told, in the next place, that, if they can convince the president that his suspicions are unfounded, he may, if he pleases, give them a license to stay. Man, we believe, never loses the sentiment of his true good.

II. ANALYSIS.

Analysis consists in resolving a sentence into its elements, and pointing out the offices and relations of each.

Parsing consists in naming the parts of speech, giving their modifications, relations, agreement, or government, and the rules for their construction.

NOTE. — The learner having now, by the process of construction, become acquainted with the various kinds of sentences, their component parts in all their relations and forms, is prepared for the opposite process of taking in pieces what he has learned to build up. He should proceed carefully at first, mastering each sentence as he advances. It will be well for him to mingle the two exercises of constructing and analyzing, and in all cases to keep up the habit of parsing according to the model already given. Let any or all of the examples in Construction be analyzed by the pupil.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS.

In analyzing a sentence, the learner should observe the following directions : —

(1.) Read the sentence, and determine whether it is *declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory*.

(2.) Endeavor to *realize* all the *ideas* in the sentence, by thinking or imagining what the writer describes as if you were with him, and could see with the mental eye just what each word represents.

- (3.) Arrange the sentence, if inverted, in the natural order.
- (4.) If necessary, supply *ellipses*.
- (5.) Find out the fewest possible words which make the *principal assertion*, and then see what *words* or *groups* of words are added to these, to show *what, how many, what kind, whose, where, when, why, how, &c.*
- (6.) If the principal assertion, with all the words, and groups of words, which make up the sentence, is found to contain but one proposition, it is a *simple sentence*.

It should be analyzed, —

- (a.) By stating *what kind* of a sentence it is.
- (b.) By pointing out the *simple* or *grammatical* subject.
- (c.) By pointing out the *simple* or *grammatical* predicate.
- (d.) By pointing out the *words* or *groups* of words which are added to the subject, showing *what kind* of element; *how* connected; *what effect* each addition has upon the subject, that is, how it limits, what it excludes, &c.; whether it is *simple, complex, or compound* — if complex or compound, what are the simple elements which comprise it, and what effect one has upon another.
- (e.) By showing what the *complex* or *logical* subject is.
- (f.) By pointing out separately all the words, or groups of words, which are added to the predicate, and disposing of them as in the subject.
- (g.) By showing what is the *complex* or *logical* predicate.*
- (7.) If the subject or predicate of the principal assertion is a proposition, or if any of the groups of words, added *directly* or *remotely* to modify either of these, contain a proposition, then the sentence is *complex*, and should be analyzed, —
 - (a.) By pointing out the principal and subordinate proposition or propositions.
 - (b.) By commencing with the principal proposition as though it were a single sentence, and analyzing it as above, introducing the subordinate proposition as a group of words forming an organic or component part of the principal, and calling it *substantive, adjective, or adverbial*, as the case may be. Then show its modifying effect, as in the case of any other element; explain the connection, point out the connective, and then analyze the proposition as if it were a simple sentence.
- (8.) If the sentence contains one proposition, to which is added another that in no way modifies the construction of the former, (it may modify the thought,) it is *compound*, and should be analyzed, —
 - (a.) By separating it into its several coordinate propositions.
 - (b.) By pointing out the connection, explaining its nature, and disposing of the coordinate connective.
 - (c.) By pointing out the parts of each proposition, as in the case of a simple sentence.
- (9.) If the sentence is a *contracted* complex, analyze it as a simple sentence, but point out the part which is equivalent to a subordinate clause.

* This minute method is to be pursued when great accuracy is desired. At times it is best to adopt a much shorter method. Sometimes it will be well to vary the above order, giving the complex subject or predicate first, and then the simple, pointing out all the added words which make up the complex. Various models of the shorter methods will be given

(10.) If the sentence is a *partial* or *contracted* compound, analyze it as a simple sentence, regarding the coordinate elements as one *compound* element.

(11.) Every element consisting of parts should be separated into its parts.

MODELS FOR ANALYSIS.

I. ELEMENTS WITH THE RELATIONS UNREPRESENTED.

"George writes."

It is a *simple* sentence, because it contains but one proposition; *declarative*, because it declares something
George is the *subject*, because it is that of which the action "writes" is affirmed.
Writes is the *predicate*, because it is that which is affirmed of "George."

NOTE. — It is well often to combine parsing with analysis, thus: *George* is the subject, &c.; it is a proper noun, third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, by Rule I. *Writes* is the predicate — an irregular verb, indicative mode, present tense, third person singular, and agrees with its subject, *George*, by Rule IV. At other times, the two exercises may be separated, and sometimes it is well to require the pupils to parse the words, taking them in the exact order of construction. first, the subject; second, the predicate; third, modifications of the subject; fourth, modifications of the predicate.

EXERCISE. — Any examples in "Construction." — Sec. 1.

"The summer shower falls gently."

It is a *simple* sentence, because it contains but one proposition; *declarative*, because it declares something.
Shower is the *grammatical subject*; it is simply that of which something is affirmed.
Falls is the *grammatical predicate*, because it is that which is affirmed of "showers." The subject is limited by *summer*, a simple adjective element of the first class; *adjective*, because it is used to limit a noun; of the *first class*, because it is a single word joined directly to the subject, without a connective; it limits by answering the question, "*What kind of?*" it excludes the idea of all showers falling at any other time than summer; it is a *simple* element, because nothing is added to it. The subject is also limited by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class; it limits by showing that some particular shower is meant.
The summer shower is the logical subject, because it is the grammatical subject with all its limitations. The predicate is limited by *gently*, a simple adverbial element of the first class; it is *adverbial*, because it is added to a verb, and denotes manner; of the *first class*, because it is joined directly to the predicate without a connective; it limits by answering the question "*How?*" it excludes the idea of all showers which do not fall gently; it is *simple*, because nothing is added to it.
Falls gently . . . is the logical predicate, because it is the grammatical predicate with all its limitations

NOTE. — The same proposition may be analyzed briefly in the following manner: —

It is a simple declarative sentence; *the summer shower* is the logical subject; *shower* is the grammatical subject; it is limited by the two simple adjective elements of the first class, *the* and *summer*; *falls gently* is the logical predicate; *falls* is the grammatical predicate, and is limited by a simple adverbial element of the first class, *gently*.

“Whom seek ye?”

It is a *simple* sentence, because it contains but one proposition; *interrogative*, because it asks a question; *indirect*, because it inquires for only a part of the corresponding declarative sentence, (it inquires for the objective element of the answer, “I seek *David*.”) *inverted* because the objective element is placed first.

Ye is the subject, because it is that of which something is affirmed, (inquired.)

Seek is the predicate, because it is that which is affirmed of *ye*; grammatical, because it is the predicate without any of its limitations; it is limited by *whom*, a simple objective element of the first class.

Seek whom is the logical predicate, because it is the grammatical predicate with its limitations.

NOTE. — When the subject or predicate is not modified, the logical subject or predicate is the same as the grammatical. But it is not necessary to make any distinction in such cases; simply say, subject or predicate.

EXERCISE. — Examples in “Construction.” — Sec. I. p. 112.

“His enemies, the Germans, crossed the Rhine.”

It is a simple declarative sentence; (why?)
Enemies is the simple subject; (why?) *His enemies, the Germans*, is the logical subject; (why?)

Crossed is the simple predicate; (why?) *Crossed the Rhine* is the logical predicate; (why?)

Enemies is limited by *his*, a simple adjective element of the first class; and also by *the Germans*, a complex adjective element of the first class, of which *Germans* is the basis, and is limited by *the*.

Crossed is limited by *the Rhine*, a complex objective element of the first class, of which *Rhine* is the basis, and is limited by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

“A very high hill overlooks an extensive valley.”

It is a simple declarative sentence; (why?)
Hill is the simple subject; (why?) *A very high hill* is the complex subject; (why?)

Overlooks is the simple predicate; (why?) *Overlooks an extensive valley* is the complex predicate; (why?)

Hill is limited by *a*, a simple adjective element of the first class, and by *very high*, a complex adjective element of the first class, showing what kind of hill; *adjective*, because it limits a noun; *complex*, because the simple element *high* is itself limited by *very*, a simple adverbial element of the first class; of the first class, because the basis *high* is a single word joined without a connective to *hill*.

Overlooks is limited by *an extensive valley*, a complex objective element of the first class, showing what it overlooks; *valley* is the *basis* or *principal* part of the objective element, and is limited by *an* and *extensive*, simple adjective elements of the first class; (why?) Now parse each word in order, beginning with the subject.

II. SENTENCES HAVING THE RELATIONS REPRESENTED.

"To steal is base."

It is a simple declarative sentence.
To steal is the subject; (why?) It is an element of the second class, since it has one word (*steal*) to express an *idea*, and another (*to*) to represent its relation. (See Rem. p. 120.)
Is base is the predicate; (why?) It is of the second form, having the attribute *base* to express the predicate idea, and *is*, the copula, to represent its relation, (predicate relation.)

"The brother of Richard I. usurped the throne."

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.
Brother is the subject.
Usurped is the predicate.
The subject, *brother*, is limited by the phrase "of Richard," an adjective element of the second class, denoting the family relation of "brother," and "Richard;" it is equivalent to "Richard's." "Of" is the *connective*, and "Richard" is the *object*.
Of is a preposition, and shows the relation of "Richard" to "brother," according to Rule XIII.
Richard is a proper noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, objective case, and is the object of the preposition "of," according to Rule XIV.

"We left on Tuesday."

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.
We is the subject, and
Left is the predicate.
We is not limited.
Left is limited by the phrase "on Tuesday," which denotes the *time* of leaving, and is an adverbial element of the second class; *on* is the *connective*, and *Tuesday* is the *object*.
On is a preposition, and shows the relation between "Tuesday" and "left," according to Rule XIII.
Tuesday is a noun, &c., and is the object of "on," according to Rule XIV.

"The whole course of his life has been distinguished by generous actions"

It is a simple declarative sentence; (why?)

Course is the subject ; * (why ?)
Has been distinguished is the predicate ; (why ?) It is an element of the second form ; of which *distinguished* is the *attribute*, expressing the *idea* of the predicate, and *has been* is the copula or connective, showing the predicate relation ; *been* denotes *completion*, and *has been*, present completion.

Course is limited by *the* and *whole* ; (describe them ;) also by the phrase *of his life*, a complex adjective element of the second class, of which *life* is the *object*, expressing the *idea*, and *of* is the preposition or connective ; showing the adjective relation. It is an adjective element, because it is joined to a noun to limit its meaning ; complex, because the object, *life*, is limited by *his*, (an adjective element of the first class ;) of the second class, because the word *life* is joined to *course* by the connective *of*, forming the phrase "*of life*." The complex subject is, *The whole course of his life*, because it is the simple subject, with all its modifications.

The predicate, *has been distinguished*, is modified by the phrase *by generous actions*, a complex adverbial element of the second class, of which *actions* is the object, expressing the *idea*, and *by* is the preposition, representing the adverbial relation. It is an adverbial element, because it is added to the verb *has been distinguished*, and answers the question *how* ; complex, because the object, *actions*, is limited by *generous* ; (describe it ;) of the second class, because the word *actions* is joined to *distinguished* by the connective *by*, forming the phrase *by actions*.

The complex predicate is, *has been distinguished by generous actions*.

NOTE. — The thorough and minute method of analysis, like the above, should be often resorted to, for the purpose of giving the learner accurate ideas of the elements and their relations. When these are understood, or occasionally, for the sake of variety, the brief method should be allowed, thus : *course* is the simple, and *the whole course of his life* is the complex subject ; *has been distinguished* is the simple, and *has been distinguished by generous actions*, the complex predicate. *Course* is limited by *the*, *whole*, and *of his life* ; *has been distinguished* is limited by the phrase *by generous actions*.

EXERCISES.

Now turn to the exercises in Construction, Sec. II., and analyze any of the examples. Construct and analyze examples of your own.

III. COMPLEX SENTENCES.

"Who was the author of Junius's Letters has never been satisfactorily determined."

It is a complex declarative sentence ; complex, because it contains a principal and a subordinate proposition ; declarative, because it expresses a declaration. The

* When the term *subject* or *predicate* is used alone, the grammatical subject or predicate is always understood.

entire sentence (since the subject is the subordinate clause) is the principal proposition, and the subject of the sentence, namely, "Who was the author of Junius's Letters," is the subordinate substantive proposition. "*Who was the author of Junius's Letters*"* is the subject of the principal proposition.

Has been determined is the simple, and *has never been satisfactorily determined* is the logical predicate. *Has been determined* is modified by *never* and *satisfactorily*; (describe them.)

Who is both the subject and connective of the subordinate clause; as connective, it is subordinate, but as a subject cannot depend on any superior term, there is nothing to which the subordinate clause (as subject) can be joined; hence *who* is here a connective without an antecedent term. As a pronoun, it is an interrogative used in a subordinate clause (see Rem. 2, page 49,) and hence has no definite antecedent.

Was author is the simple, and *was the author of Junius's Letters* is the complex predicate; *author* is limited by *the* and by *of Junius's Letters*.

"A man who finds not satisfaction in himself, seeks for it in vain elsewhere."

It is a complex sentence, because it contains two dissimilar clauses. "A man seeks for it in vain elsewhere" is the principal, and "who finds not satisfaction in himself" is the subordinate adjective clause.

Man is the subject of the principal clause.

Seeks is the predicate.

The subject is limited by "a," also by the adjective clause, "who finds not satisfaction in himself," which describes "man."

The complex subject is "A man who finds not satisfaction in himself."

The predicate . . . is limited by "for it," "in vain," and "elsewhere."

The complex predicate is "seeks for it in vain elsewhere."

Who is the subject of the adjective clause.

Finds is the predicate.

The predicate . . . is limited, first, by "not;" secondly, by "satisfaction;" and thirdly, by "in himself."

Who is a relative pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, according to Rule V.; it is the subject of the proposition, "who finds," &c., according to Rule I., and connects this proposition with "man," the subject of the principal clause, according to Rule XVI.

"Do you know that you have wronged him?"

It is a complex sentence, because it is composed of dissimilar clauses; *interrogative*, because it asks a question; *direct*, because it can be answered by *yes* or

* Strictly speaking, "*Who was author*" is the grammatical, and "*Who was the author of Junius's Letters*" the logical subject. But, unless great accuracy is required, the entire proposition may be regarded as simple, except when it contains in itself a subordinate proposition.

no. "Do you know" is the principal, and "that you have wronged him," the subordinate substantive clause.

You is the subject of the principal clause.

Do know is the predicate.

The predicate . . . is limited by "that you have wronged him," an objective element, denoting *what* is known. It is used as a noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, and is the object of "do know," according to Rule VIII. "Do know that you have wronged him" is the complex predicate.

You is the subject of the subordinate clause.

Have wronged . . . is the predicate.

The predicate . . . is limited by "him," a simple objective element, showing *whom*.

That is a subordinate conjunction, and connects the substantive clause, "you have wronged him," to the predicate of the principal clause, "know," according to Rule XV.

"When the wicked are multiplied, transgression increaseth."

It is a complex sentence. (Why?) "Transgression increaseth" is the principal, and "when the wicked are multiplied," the subordinate clause.

Transgression . . . is the subject of the principal clause.

Increaseth is the predicate.

The predicate . . . is limited by "when the wicked are multiplied," an adverbial clause denoting *time*. (See Rule IX.) The complex predicate is, "increaseth when the wicked are multiplied."

Wicked is the subject of the subordinate clause.

Are multiplied . . . is the predicate.

When is a subordinate connective, (conjunctive adverb of time,) and joins the adverbial clause, which it introduces, to the predicate of the principal clause, according to Rule XV. It limits "are multiplied" and "increaseth," according to Rule IX.

"The Cynic who twitted Aristippus, by observing that the philosopher who could dine on herbs might despise the company of a king, was well replied to by Aristippus, when he remarked, that the philosopher who could enjoy the company of a king might also despise a dinner of herbs."

This is a complex sentence, containing seven clauses, one principal, and six subordinate.

- (1.) *The Cynic was well replied to by Aristippus,*
- (2.) *Who twitted Aristippus by observing,*
- (3.) *That the philosopher might despise the company of a king,*
- (4.) *Who could dine on herbs,*
- (5.) *When he remarked,*
- (6.) *That the philosopher might also despise a dinner of herbs,*
- (7.) *Who can enjoy the company of a king.*

The first is the principal clause, and the others are subordinate.

Cynic is the subject of the principal clause.

Was replied to . . . is the predicate.

The subject, *Cynic*, is limited by 'who twitted Aristippus by observing, &c., a complex adjective element of the third class, "who" is the connective and subject, "twitted" is the predicate, and is limited, first, by "Aristippus," a simple objective element of the first class, and also by "by observing that the philosopher might despise the company of a king," a complex adverbial element of the second class; "by observing" is the basis, "by" is the connective, and "observing" is the object; "observing" is limited by "that the philosopher might despise the company of a king," a complex objective element of the third class, of which "that" is the connective; "philosopher" is the subject, and is limited by "who could dine on herbs," an adjective element of the third class; "might despise" is the predicate, and is limited by "the company of a king," a complex objective element of the first class.

The predicate, *was replied to*, is limited, first, by "well," a simple adverbial element of the first class, and by "by Aristippus," an adverbial element of the second class, and also by the clause "when he remarked, that the philosopher," &c., a complex adverbial element of the third class, of which "when" is the connective, "he" is the subject, and "remarked" is the predicate; "remarked" is limited by "that the philosopher," &c., a complex objective element of the third class, of which "that" is the connective, "philosopher" is the subject, "the philosopher who could enjoy the company of a king" is the logical subject, "might despise" is the predicate, and "might also despise a dinner of herbs" is the logical predicate; the subject, "philosopher," is limited by the clause "who could enjoy the company of a king," a complex adjective element of the third class, of which "who" is the connective and subject, "could enjoy" is the predicate, and is limited by "the company of a king," a complex objective element of first class; the predicate "might despise" is limited by "a dinner of herbs," a complex objective element of the first class, of which "dinner" is the basis, and is limited by "of herbs," a simple adjective element of the second class.

EXERCISE.

Analyze any of the sentences in "Construction," Sec. III.

"A ship *gliding over the waves*, is a beautiful object."

This is a *simple* sentence, or, more properly a *contracted complex*.

Ship is the simple, and

A ship gliding over the waves is the complex subject.

Is object is the simple, and

Is a beautiful object is the complex predicate.

The subject, *ship*, . . is limited by "gliding over the waves," a complex adjective element of the first class; it is equivalent to "which glides over the waves," and is therefore an abridged proposition, obtained by dropping the subject

and connective "which," and changing "glides," the predicate, into the participle "gliding."
Object is limited by "a" and "beautiful."

IV. SENTENCES HAVING COORDINATE PARTS.

"Socrates and Plato were distinguished philosophers."

Socrates and Plato It is a *partial* or *contracted* compound sentence.*
 form the compound subject, because they are united by "and," and have a common predicate, "were philosophers."
The subject is not limited.
The predicate is limited by "distinguished," an adjective element of the first class, used to describe "philosophers."
And is a coordinate conjunction, and connects the two simple subjects, according to Rule XI.

"You may buy books or slates."

You It is a *partial* or *contracted* compound sentence.*
 is the subject.
May buy is the predicate.
You is not limited.
May buy is limited by "books or slates," a compound objective element of the first class, showing *what* may be bought.
Or is a coordinate conjunction, (alternative,) showing that a choice is offered between "books" and "slates," which are connected by it, according to Rule XI.

"If men praise your efforts, suspect their judgment; if they censure them, your own."

It is a compound sentence, consisting of two coordinate parts; each part consisting of a principal and a subordinate clause.
The natural order would be, "Suspect the judgment of men, if they praise your efforts; your own, if they censure them."
There is an ellipsis of the principal clause in the second part; this, if supplied, would be, "If they censure them, suspect your own judgment."
In the first part, "suspect their judgment" is the principal clause, and, "if men praise your efforts" the subordinate. In the second part, after the ellipsis is supplied, "suspect your own judgment" is the principal clause, and "if they censure them" is the subordinate. "You" (understood) is the subject of the principal clause in the first part, "suspect" is the predicate; it is limited, first, by "their judgment," a complex objective element of the first class, used to answer the question "What?" and also by "if men praise your efforts," an adverbial element of the third class, denoting condition. (Analyze according to the model.)

* Let the pupil become accustomed to completing such sentences by supplying ellipses, thus: Socrates was a distinguished philosopher, and Plato was a distinguished philosopher.

"You" (understood) is the subject of the principal clause in the second part; "suspect" is the predicate; it is limited by "your own judgment," a complex objective element of the first class, and also by "if they censure them," an adverbial element of the third class, denoting condition, &c.

The two coordinate parts of the sentence are connected by the adversative conjunction "but" understood, which denotes opposition or contrast.

EXERCISES

Analyze and parse the following sentences according to the models: —

A noble income, nobly expended, is no common sight.

Human foresight often leaves its proudest possessor only a choice of evils.

Applause is the spur of noble minds; the end and aim of weak ones.

Grant graciously what* you cannot refuse safely.

Most men know what they hate; few what they love.

He who openly tells his friends all that he thinks of them must expect that they will secretly tell his enemies much that they do not think of him.

That nations sympathize with their monarch's glory, that they are improved by his virtues, and that the tone of morals rises high when he that leads the band is perfect, are truths admitted with exultation, and felt with honest pride.

Highly elated by his unexpected good fortune, he returned home. Saving carefully the fruits of his labor, he at length was able to purchase a farm.

A pretended patriot, he impoverished his country.

III. RULES FOR CONSTRUCTION.

RULE I. A noun or pronoun used as the *subject* of a proposition must be in the nominative case.

RULE II. A noun or pronoun used as the *attribute* of a proposition after the finite verb *to be*, or any intransitive or passive verb, must be in the nominative case.

RULE III. A *pronoun* must agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and person.

RULE IV. The *verb* must agree with its subject in number and person.

* *What*, as antecedent, is the objective element of the principal clause, and as relative, is the objective element of the subordinate clause.

RULE V. An *adjective* or *participle* must belong to some noun or pronoun.

RULE VI. A noun or pronoun used to *explain* or *identify* another noun or pronoun is put by apposition in the same case.

RULE VII. A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun by denoting *possession* must be in the possessive case.

RULE VIII. A noun or pronoun used as the *object* of a transitive verb, or its participles, must be in the objective case.

RULE IX. *Adverbs* are used to limit verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.

RULE X. The nominative case *independent*, and the *interjection*, have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence.

RULE XI. *Coördinate* conjunctions are used to connect similar elements.

RULE XII. When a verb or pronoun relates to two or more nouns connected by a coördinate conjunction, —

(1.) If it agrees with them taken *conjunctly*, it must be in the *plural* number.

(2.) But if it agrees with them taken *separately*, it must be of the same number as that which stands next to it.

(3.) If it agrees with *one*, and *not* the other, it must take the number of that one.

RULE XIII. A preposition is used to show the relation of its object to the word on which the latter depends.

RULE XIV. A noun or pronoun used as the *object* of a preposition must be in the objective case.

RULE XV. *Subordinate* connectives are used to join dissimilar elements.

RULE XVI. The *infinitive* has the construction of the *noun*, with the signification and limitations of the verb, and when dependent, is governed by the word which it limits.

RULE XVII. *Participles* have the construction of *adjectives* and *nouns*, and are limited like *verbs*.

RULES, CAUTIONS, AND REMARKS.

RULE I. A noun or pronoun used as the subject of a proposition must be in the nominative case; as, "*Cæsar* conquered Gaul." "*To see* the sun is pleasant." "*That there will be an eclipse of the moon*, has been predicted."

EXAMPLES to be analyzed and parsed :—

We found the simple cottage of the artist. The gardens are full of the freshness and beauty of morning. Would you see in what peace a Christian can die? Our steamer staggered in the current. A curious echo is here. The accused was reconducted to his prison. I could not sustain the picture of confinement which my fancy had drawn. _____* rose, and prepared to leave the abbey. The _____ must come, when the _____ shall twine round the fallen columns. Now fades the glimmering _____ on the sight. That the king can do no wrong, is admitted without reluctance. To conquer Gaul was Cæsar's purpose in his campaign.

Construct, analyze, and parse —

FIVE EXAMPLES in which the subject shall be a noun or pronoun, masculine, singular; *five* in which it shall be feminine, plural; *five* in which it shall be neuter, singular; *five* in which the subject is a group of words.

CAUTION. * *Never use the objective as the subject of a finite verb.* Say, *I* did it, not *me* did it.

EXAMPLES to be corrected and parsed :—

You and me will go together. Him that is studious will improve. She found the place sooner than us. Them that seek wisdom will be wise. They are people whom one would think might be trusted. Who told you the story? Him and her. I know it as well as him or her. Who saw the eclipse? Us. Here's none but thee and I. They have more friends than me. Them are the ones.

MODEL. — "You and me will go together" is incorrect, because the objective pronoun *me* is made the subject of the verb *will go*; but by Caution I., the objective should never be used as the subject of a finite verb. Correct, "You and I will go together."

REM. 1. — An *infinitive*, a *substantive* clause, or any thing that may be used as a noun, may be the subject; as, "*To steal* is base." "*That you have wronged me* doth appear in this." "*S* is a consonant."

REM. 2. — Although every subject of a finite verb must be in the nominative case, every nominative case is not the subject of a verb. The predicate noun, or pronoun, after a finite verb, is put in the nominative; a noun or pronoun, in apposition with the subject or predicate nominative, is put in the nominative; the noun denoting the person addressed is put in the nominative; a noun with a participle or an infinitive, in an abridged proposition, may be in the nominative; a noun used in a mere exclamation is put in the nominative. See Rule X.

REM. 3. — The subject is usually omitted in the imperative mode, and

* When blanks occur, words are to be supplied and parsed by the pupil.

after *than*, *while*, *when*, *if* or *though*, *as*, when the verb is made one of the terms of comparison; as, "*Arise.*" "*Go.*" "*He reads as well as [he] writes.*" "*We shall go, if [it is] possible.*"

REM. 4. — The subject is commonly placed before the predicate, but is sometimes placed after it; as, "*Were I not Alexander, I would be Diogenes.*"

REM. 5. — In an abridged proposition, the subject may remain unchanged, may be changed, or may be wholly dropped.

(1.) It remains unchanged when it denotes a different person or thing from that of the principal clause, and (though logically it is still the subject) is said to be in the *nominative case absolute*, with the participle of the predicate; as, "*When SHAME is lost, all virtue is lost.*" "*SHAME being lost, all virtue is lost.*"

(2.) It is changed to the *possessive case* when the abridged predicate, as a noun, becomes the object of its possession; as, "*I was not aware that HE was going.*" "*I was not aware of HIS going.*"

(3.) It is changed to the *objective case* when it follows a transitive verb, and is followed by the infinitive of the predicate, or (when the infinitive is omitted) by the attribute of the predicate; as, "*We supposed that HE was writing, was honest, or was the commander.*" "*We supposed HIM to be writing, to be honest, or to be the commander;*" or, (omitting the infinitive,) "*We supposed HIM writing, supposed HIM honest, supposed HIM the commander.*"

(4.) It is dropped when it represents the subject or object of the principal clause, or, in general, when it represents the noun which the subordinate clause limits; as, "*I wish that I might go.*" "*I wish to go.*" "*Reproof WHICH is given in public hardens the heart.*" "*Reproof given in public hardens the heart.*" See "*Abridged Propositions*," page 187.

REM. 6. — The *nominative case absolute* is sometimes omitted; as, "*Allowing this to be so, what then? that is, 'We allowing.'*"

REM. 7. — The *object* of the verb in the active voices becomes its subject in the passive voice; as, "*John granted the Magna Charta*" = The Magna Charta was granted by John.

EXAMPLES to be corrected and parsed by the Remarks under Rule I.*

A is an article. We shall return as soon as possible. Repeat the lesson as I shall dictate. They sing as well as play. Silver and gold have I none, but such as I have give I thee. I was not aware of his being her cousin. We supposed that he was going. We supposed him to be going. His work being finished, he will be able to leave. May she be happy. Who broke this knife? Ma. You are as old as her. Paul — was there. I know — sayest it; says thy life the same? The t's are not crossed. It is certain that the offender will be punished.

RULE II. A noun or pronoun used as the *attribute* of a proposition, after the finite verb *to be*, or any intransitive or passive verb, must be in the *nominative case*; as, "*I am he.*" "*He is a scholar.*"

* TO THE TEACHER. — It is recommended that the exercises on the Remarks be deferred till the pupil shall go through the book a second or third time. The words in *Italics* are to be corrected. The blanks are to be filled. The sentences are to be analyzed, and any or all of the words to be parsed. It is thought best to throw in the examples promiscuously without a definite reference to the Remarks, that the pupil may learn to search and apply for himself, as he is now supposed to have acquired some skill in analyzing and parsing.

EXAMPLES to be parsed:—

A life of prayer is the life of heaven. He returned a friend who came a foe. Art thou that traitor angel, art thou he? No contemptible orator he was. The tree was called the "Charter Oak." John was called the beloved disciple. He was elected governor by a large majority. He died a madman. It will remain a monument of his greatness. You are my friend. It could not be she. Has he been a student? His meat was locusts and wild honey.

Construct, analyze, and parse—

FIVE EXAMPLES in which the noun or pronoun shall be masculine plural; *five* in which it shall be feminine singular; *five* in which it shall be a noun, or a group of words, neuter singular.

CAUTION. *The attribute after a finite verb should never be in the objective.* Say, It is I, not me.

EXAMPLES to be corrected:—

It is me. It is them that must be blamed. I would do so, if I were him. Whom do you think it is? It may have been her. I do not know whom it is. It is not me; it is her. Whom do men say that I am?

REM. 1.—The predicate nominative always denotes the same person or thing as the subject, and must agree with it in *case*. When the predicate nominative denotes a person, it usually agrees with the subject in *gender*, *number*, and *case*.

REM. 2.—By a peculiar idiom of the English language, the neuter pronoun *it*, as subject, may represent a noun or pronoun as predicate of any number, person, or gender; as, "It is I." "It is they." "It is James." "It is she."

REM. 3.—This rule applies when copulative verbs are used; as, "He is becoming an artist."

REM. 4.—An infinitive or substantive clause may be used as the predicate nominative; as, "To live is to exist." "My impression is, *that he will come*."

REM. 5.—In an abridged proposition, (see "Abridged Propositions," page 185,) the predicate nominative may remain unchanged, may be changed, but can never be dropped.

(1.) It remains unchanged in the nominative when the subject remains in the nominative; as, "*As a YOUTH was their LEADER*, what could they do?" "A YOUTH being their LEADER, what could they do?" Here *leader* is in the nominative, after the participle *being*, because *youth* is in the nominative.

(2.) It remains unchanged in the nominative, relating logically (not grammatically) to the omitted or altered subject, when, in connection with the infinitive, or participle of the copula, it forms a verbal noun; as, "*That ONE should be a THIEF*, is strange." "*Being a THIEF*, or *to be a THIEF*, is strange." "I was not aware *that IT was HE*." "I was not aware of *ITS being HE*." Here *thief* and *he* are in the nominative after *being*, or *to be*, because the subject, being either changed to the possessive or dropped, has no power over the predicate noun.

(3.) It is changed to the objective when the subject is changed to the objective, or when the noun which the omitted subject would represent (see REM. 5. (4) Rule I.) is in the objective; as, "I believed *that IT was HE*." "I believed *IT to be HIM*." "We found a *plant WHICH is called the LILAC*." "We found a *PLANT called the LILAC*." Here *he* becomes *him*, because *it* is changed to the objective, and *lilac* is in the objective, because, *which*

being dropped, it derives its case from the antecedent, *plant*. Had *plant* been in the nominative, as in the following, "The plant which is called the lilac is fragrant," *lilac* would have been in the nominative, after the change of the adjective clause; as, "The PLANT called the LILAC is fragrant."

REM. 6. — The form of the verb is not affected by the predicate, but by the subject nominative; as, "Apples are *fruit*." "His food was *vegetables*."

REM. 7. — The predicate nominative is commonly placed after the verb, and the subject nominative before it; but in questions, both direct and indirect, this order is not observed; as, "Is *that* the master?" "Who is *he*?" that is, "He is *who*?"

EXAMPLES to be parsed or corrected by the Remarks under Rule II.

He became his faithful —. To teach is to —. Mr. — being their teacher, they made rapid progress. Being a stranger, he was very lonely. I know not who thou art. I believed it to be him. They believed it to be *I*. Who do you suppose it to be? He was not known to be a —. A man he was to all the country dear. She is the person *who* I understood her to be. His pavilion were dark waters, and thick clouds of the sky. We found an animal called a wessel.

RULE III. A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and person; as, "Those men *who* are most consistent are not more unlike to others than *they* are at times to themselves."

EXAMPLES to be analyzed and parsed: —

Ye, therefore, who love mercy, teach your sons to love it too. Other sheep I have, which are not of this fold.

This is the friend of whom I spoke. He who had no mercy upon others is now reduced to a condition which may excite the pity of his most implacable enemy.

At sea, every thing that breaks the monotony of the surrounding expanse attracts attention. They found that all their efforts were unavailing. That life is long which answers life's great end. He is the friend whose arrival is daily expected.

Construct, analyze, and parse —

SIX EXAMPLES in which a personal pronoun shall be in the nominative singular; *six* in which a personal pronoun shall be possessive singular; *six* in which the personal pronoun shall be objective plural; *six* in which a relative pronoun shall be in the nominative singular, *three* referring to persons, and *three* to things or animals; *six* in which the relative shall be in the possessive or objective case; *six* in which an interrogative pronoun shall be used, *two* in the nominative, *two* in the possessive, and *two* in the objective.

CAUTION I. Avoid the use of a noun and pronoun as subject or object of the same verb, unless great emphasis is required. Say, The boy did it, not, the boy, *he*.

EXAMPLES to be corrected: —

Many words they darken speech. That girl she is very ignorant. The king he was very angry. Anna, she told me so. The teacher approving the plan, he immediately adopted it. Whom when they had washed, they laid her in an upper chamber. What he said, he is now sorry for it.

CAUTION II. *Avoid the use of a plural pronoun having a singular antecedent.* Say, Let every one attend to *his*, not *their*, work.

EXAMPLES to be corrected :—

Let each scholar who thinks so raise their hands. A person can content themselves on small means. Let every one answer for themselves. Rebecca took goodly raiment, and put them upon Jacob. Can any one be sure that they are not deceived ?

CAUTION III. *In the use of a pronoun, avoid ambiguity in its reference to an antecedent.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected :—

Thou hast no right to be a judge, who art a party concerned. A hawk caught a hen, and eat her in her own nest. A purse was lost in the street which contained a large sum of money. There are millions of people in the empire of China whose support is derived almost entirely from rice.

CAUTION IV. *Never place a pronoun of the first person before a noun or pronoun of the second or third, or one of the third before one of the second.* Say, *George*, and *you*, and *I*, not *I*, and *you*, and *George*, will go.

EXAMPLES to be corrected :—

I and you may go, if I and he can agree. I, and you, and Harriet are going. Father said, that I and Henry should stay at home. When will Mary and you be ready ? Horace, and I, and you are invited.

CAUTION V. *Avoid the use of who, when speaking of animals and inanimate objects, and of which, when speaking of persons.* Say, The cat *which* mews, not *who*.

EXAMPLES to be corrected :—

There was a certain householder which planted a vineyard. He has a soul who cannot be influenced by such motives. This is the dog whom my father bought. The lady which we saw was highly educated. He has some friends which I am acquainted with. The judge which pronounced the sentence was an upright man. Those which desire to be happy should be careful to do that which is right.

CAUTION VI. *Avoid a change of number, or a change of pronouns, when reference is made to the same antecedent in the same sentence.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected :—

Though thou art wise, you sometimes misjudge. Do thyself no harm, and no one will harm you. This is the man who discovered our distress.

and that brought us relief. I know you, who thou art that annoyest me at thy gate. O thou who art all-wise, and that rulest over all!

REM. 1. — Interrogative pronouns commonly refer to objects unknown to the speaker; and hence the gender, number, and person must be assumed, till the person or thing inquired for becomes known. Although the pronoun in such cases may not agree with the actual object in question, consistency should be preserved in every reference to the assumed one. The following sentence is wrong, owing to a change of number in the supposed object. "Who was not charmed with the music *they* heard just now?" *Was* should be changed to *were*, or *they* to *he*.

REM. 2. — The English language being destitute of a pronoun of the third person, which may apply equally to either sex, an erroneous use of *they*, referring to *person*, *any one*, or *some one*, has been adopted even by respectable writers, to conceal the gender or to avoid an awkward use of *he*, or *she*, thus: "If any one would test these rules for the preservation of health, *they* (*he* or *she*) must persevere in all states of the weather." The want of such a pronoun is still more apparent when the speaker has a definite person before his mind, and wishes to conceal the gender, thus: "The person who gave me this information desired me to conceal — name." When the person referred to belongs to an assemblage, known to be composed wholly of males, or wholly of females, the masculine or feminine pronoun should be used accordingly. But when the person belongs to an assemblage of males and females, usage has sanctioned the employment of a masculine pronoun, thus: "Is any among you afflicted? let *him*" (not *them*, — not *him* or *her*) "pray."

REM. 3. — When a pronoun refers to a collective noun in the singular, it should be neuter singular, if the noun conveys the idea of unity; as, "The school was opened under favorable auspices; but *it* was dismissed for want of patronage." But when the noun conveys the idea of plurality, the pronoun should be plural, taking the gender of the individuals composing the collection; as, "The multitude eagerly pursue pleasure as *their* chief good."

REM. 4. — When things or animals are personified, they should be represented as persons by the pronouns employed; as, "Grim darkness furls *his* leaden shroud." "The wolf *who* from the nightly fold fierce drags the bleating prey."

REM. 5. — The pronoun *it* does not always refer to a definite object. See "Etymology," page 41, Rem. 2.

REM. 6. — The pronoun usually follows its antecedent, but sometimes it is placed first; as, "Hark! *they* whisper, angels say."

REM. 7. — Relative and interrogative pronouns are usually placed at the beginning of their clauses, even though the order of construction would assign them some other position; as, "Paternus had but one son, *whom* he educated himself."

REM. 8. — The relative in the objective is sometimes omitted; as, "Here is the present [which] he gave me."

REM. 9. — In disposing of a personal pronoun, two rules should be given, one for its agreement, and one for its construction: in disposing of a relative, we should add to these the rule for it as a connective.

REM. 10. — The construction of the relative is independent of its antecedent. It may be in the *nominative* case, as subject of a finite verb — *nominative absolute*, *possessive case*, or in the *objective case* governed by a transitive verb, or by a preposition; as, "They *who* speak." "We ordered the horses to be harnessed, *which being done*, we commenced our journey." "He hastened to the palace of his sovereign, into *whose* presence his hoary locks and mournful visage soon obtained admission." "The person *whom* I saw." "*Whom* did you take him to be." See Rem. 10

Rale VIII. "The man *whom* they call the janitor." "This is the rule to *which* we called his attention."

REM. 11. — The relative, when used in a *restrictive* sense, joins the proposition which it introduces to the antecedent, imparting to the clause the qualities of an adjective. When thus used, it commonly has, prefixed to the antecedent, a *correlative*, such as *the, this, that, these, those*; the adjective clause becomes a necessary addition to the antecedent to complete the limitation intimated by these words. When not used in a restrictive sense, the relative introduces an additional proposition, and is equivalent to *and he, and she, and it, and they*; as, "He gave me a book, which he requested me to read" = He gave me a book, *and* he requested me to read it.

REM. 12. — When the relative is governed by a preposition, it is generally best to place the latter at the beginning of the clause; as, "This is the subject *to* which he alluded," not which he alluded *to*. But when the relative *that* is thus governed, the preposition is always placed at the end; as, "Here is the last bridge *that* we shall come *to*." It is better not to employ *that* when the governing preposition is understood; it is, however, sometimes used; as, "In the day *that* thou eatest thereof, thou shalt surely die."

REM. 13. — The relative *that* should be used, —

(1.) After the interrogative *who*; as, "*Who that* marks the fire still, sparkling in each eye," &c.

(2.) After an adjective in the superlative degree; as, "He was the *last that* left."

(3.) After *very, all, same*; as, "This is the *very* book *that* I want." "Is not this *all that* you ask?" "He is the *same* person *that* I took him to be."

(4.) When the relative refers to both persons and things; as, "Here are the *persons and papers that* were sent for."

EXAMPLES to be parsed or corrected by the Remarks under Rule III.

She is handsome, and she has the misfortune of knowing it. Who was not delighted with the walk which *they* took in the —? If any one would make progress, *they* must resist temptation. Is any one sad? let him seek the consolation of the gospel. Every one must judge of *their* own —. He met crowds, *who* were going up the streets. The council were divided in *its* sentiments. The lion said to the ass, *which* had been hunting with it. He found the books which he sought. He found that he had formed plans which could not be accomplished. He gave me an exercise, and requested me to correct it. He gave me an exercise which he requested me to correct. This is the very — *which* I need. He needs no spectacles, *that* cannot see. It is the same — *which* I showed you before. Who, *who* has any regard for his reputation, would act thus? Many a man loses *their* character by such acts. I do not care who knows it. Whom the cap fits, let him put it on. Blessed is the man who feareth the Lord, and who keepeth his commandments. It was that Mary which anointed the Lord with ointment, and wiped his feet with her hair, whose brother — was sick.

RULE IV. The *verb* must agree with its subject in number and person; as, "I *am*." "Thou *art sitting*." "We *have come*."

EXAMPLES to be parsed: —

I do entreat thee. I do think you could contrive to find her employment if you are inclined to it. They will follow your advice. He gave up all hope of obtaining his object. Murmur at nothing. That the evidence of this

man's guilt will insure his condemnation, is admitted. To do to others as we would have them do to us, is the golden rule.

Construct, analyze, and parse —

FOUR EXAMPLES in which the verb shall be in the first or second person, present tense; *four* in which it shall be in the third person, present perfect tense; *four* in which the verb shall be second person singular, potential, present, or present perfect; *four* in which it shall be present, past, or future, progressive form; *four* in which it shall be passive, present perfect, past perfect, or future perfect; *four* in which it shall be second person singular, emphatic form; *four* in which it shall be used interrogatively in the indicative or potential; *four* in which *shall* or *will* simply predict.

CAUTION I. *Avoid the use of a singular verb with a plural subject, or a plural verb and a singular subject.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected: —

Where was you this morning when I called? He dare you to do it. They was unwilling to go. Relatives agrees with their antecedents. There's ten of us going. His pulse beat quick. She have not done it. Was you certain of it? We was allowed the privilege. Circumstances alters cases. Has those books been sent home? On one side was sloping banks.

CAUTION II. *Never use a singular verb with a collective noun intended to express plurality of idea; or a plural verb with a collective noun intended to express unity of idea.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected: —

The committee has accepted their appointment. The majority was disposed to adopt the measure which they at first opposed. Blessed is the people that know the joyful sound. The fleet were seen sailing up the channel, where afterwards it anchored. The peasantry goes barefoot without endangering their health. There are a flock of birds. The public is requested to attend for their own benefit. All the world is spectators of your conduct. The regiment consist of two thousand men. The church have no power to adopt the measure which it advocates.

CAUTION III. *Never use a plural verb with a singular subject, though the latter be modified by a noun in the plural.* Say, Each of his brothers *is* well, not *are* well.

EXAMPLES to be corrected: —

Four years' interest were expected. The derivation of these words are uncertain. The story, with all its additions, were believed. The increase of his resources render the change necessary. The number of applicants increase. The general, with all his soldiers, were taken. The sale of the goods take place to-morrow. The hope of retrieving his losses increase his diligence.

CAUTION IV. *Be careful not to use the WRONG VERB, as, SET for SIT, LAY for LIE, COME for GO; nor the WRONG FORM,*

as, DONE *for* DID, WROTE *for* WRITTEN, &c.; *nor* the WRONG TENSE, *as*, SEE *for* SAW, GIVE *for* GAVE; *nor* IMPROPER CONTRACTIONS, *as*, AIN'T *for* ARE NOT, &c.

EXAMPLES to be corrected:—

I seen him when he done it. Some one has broke my pencil. Tell them to set still. She laid down by the fire. He soon begun to be weary of the employment. I am going to lay down. Mary has wrote a letter. I see him when he went. Ain't it true? We ain't going this evening. He has drank too much. The tree has fell. You have not did as I told you. John has stole the knife. They are going to our house next week. He give me a great many books. He knowed his lesson better than Henry. They had sang very well. I have lain your book on the shelf. Will you sit the pitcher on the table, and let it set there. The ship lays in the harbor. I done my sums first.

REM. 1.—To this rule there are properly no exceptions. The collective noun in the singular may take a plural verb, but never except when the mind sees in it a collection of individuals.

REM. 2.—The nominative and verb after *many a* (an) should be singular; *as*, “Full many a flower *is* born to blush unseen.”

REM. 3.—Verbs in the imperative mood usually agree with *thou*, *ye*, or *you*, understood.

RULE V. An adjective or participle must belong to some noun or pronoun; *as*, “The *guilty* man;” = “The man *was guilty*.” Or, more specifically,—

(1.) An adjective or participle used as the *attribute* of a proposition after the verb to *be*, or any intransitive or passive verb, belongs to the subject; *as*, “The tree *is tall*.” “To see the sun *is pleasant*.” “Where the funds will be obtained *is doubtful*.”

(2.) An adjective or participle used to *limit* or *qualify* a noun belongs to the noun which it modifies; *as*, “An *upright* judge.” “*Five* boxes.” “The *good old* man.”

EXAMPLES to be analyzed or parsed:—

When the morning stars sang together, and all the sons of God shouted for joy, where wast thou? The influence of such pursuits *is* ennobling. He *was* a good man, and a just. He *was* a burning and a shining light. These opportunities, improved *as* they should be, must produce the desired results. The hopes of the whole family were centred on him. His resources were inexhaustible. To insult the afflicted *is* impious. Pity the sorrows of a poor old man, whose trembling limbs have borne him to your door. That he should refuse such a proposition, *was* not unexpected. Every thing which *is* false, vicious, or unworthy, *is* despicable to him, though all the world should approve it.

Construct, analyze, and parse —

FIVE EXAMPLES in which a limiting adjective shall modify the subject, *five* in which a qualifying adjective shall modify the predicate nominative; *five* in which a limiting and qualifying adjective shall modify the object of a verb, or preposition; *five* in which the qualifying adjective shall, with the copula, form the predicate; *five* in which the adjective shall be in the comparative or superlative degree.

CAUTION I. *Never use the limiting adjective (article) **A** before the sound of a vowel, nor **AN** before the sound of a consonant.* Say, *An apple*, not *a apple*.

EXAMPLES to be corrected :—

He found a acorn in the woods. He was a honorable man. It is an wonderful invention. He is an younger man than we thought. She shewed an uniform adherence to truth. This is an hard saying.

CAUTION II. *Avoid the use of a plural adjective to limit a singular noun.* Say, *This sort of people*, not *those*.

EXAMPLES to be corrected :—

I do not like remarks of these kind. These sort of people are very disagreeable. Will you buy six pair of boots? I have bought eight foot of wood. It cost a thousand pound. The lot is fifty foot in width. The water is six fathom deep. We walked three mile in a short time. He ordered ten ton of coal.

CAUTION III. *Never use the pronoun **THEM**, for the adjective **THOSE**.* Say, *Those books*, not *them books*.

EXAMPLES to be corrected :—

I found them books on the table. Which of them scholars recites the best? Go and tell them boys to come here. Ask them childran to bring them apples here.

CAUTION IV. *Avoid the use of the adjective for the adverb.* Say, *Speak promptly*, not *prompt*.

EXAMPLES to be corrected :—

She dresses neat. The time passed very quick. The ship glides smooth over the water. The stream flows silent on. It is not such a great distance as I thought it was. He behaved much wiser than the others. Mary speaks French very fluent. I am exceeding sorry to hear such tidings.

CAUTION V. *Avoid the use of the superlative degree when two objects are compared, or the comparative when more than two are compared.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected :—

He was the larger of them all. He was the oldest of the two brothers. He preferred the latter of the three. Which is the oldest of the two? John is the wisest of the two.

CAUTION VI. *Avoid the use of double comparatives and superlatives.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected :—

After the most straitest sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee. This was the most unkindest cut of all. The rose is most fairest of all flowers

He is the most kindest friend I have. Solomon was more wiser than any other king.

REM. 1. — The appropriate use of the adjective is to *restrict* the application of a noun used as a *common* name applicable to each individual of a class. The adjective thus used is always a dependent term, having the restricted noun as its principal.

REM. 2. — A noun may be restricted or limited in its application, —

(1.) Without affecting any of its properties; as, "*Two men.*" "*These books.*"

(2.) By designating some *property* or *quality*; as, "*Good men.*" "*Industrious boys.*"

(3.) By *identifying* it; as, "*Paul the Apostle.*" "*Peter the Hermit.*"

(4.) By representing it as an object *possessed*; as, "*David's harp.*"

The first two limitations are affected by *adjectives*; the last two by *nouns* or *pronouns* performing the office of the adjective

REM. 3. — Any word, or group of words, employed to limit a noun, is an *adjective element*, that is, it is of the nature of an adjective; as, "*Industrious men.*" "*Men of industry.*" "*Men who are industrious.*"

REM. 4. — Limiting adjectives, when used in connection with qualifying, are generally placed first; as, "*The old man.*" "*This valuable hint.*" "*Ten small trees.*" When two limiting adjectives are used, one of which is an article, the latter is usually placed first; as, "*The ten commandments.*" But after *many*, *such*, *all*, *what*, and *both* the article stands next to the noun; So also, after adjectives preceded by *too*, *so*, *as*, or *how*; as, "*Many a man.*" "*Such a man.*" "*All the boys.*" "*What a boy.*" "*Both the girls.*" "*Too great, as great, so great, how great, a man.*"

REM. 5. — *A*, or *an*, belongs to nouns in the singular number. But before *few*, *hundred*, or *thousand*, it seems to belong to a plural noun; as, "*A few men.*" "*A hundred ships.*" "*A thousand pounds.*"

REM. 6. — *The* belongs to nouns, either singular or plural; as, "*The man.*" "*The men.*"

REM. 7. — When two or more qualifying adjectives belong to a noun representing but *one* object, the limiting adjective should not be repeated; as, "*A red and white flag*;" i. e., one flag having two colors. But when two or more such adjectives belong to a noun used to represent as many different objects as there are adjectives employed, the limiting adjective must be repeated; as, "*We saw a black, a white, a red, and a gray horse*;" i. e., four horses of different colors.

REM. 8. — Adjectives which imply number should agree in number with the nouns to which they belong; as, "*All men*;" "*Several men.*" When two numerals precede a noun, one singular and the other plural, the plural should generally be placed next to the noun; as, "*The first two lines*," not, "*The two first lines.*" In such expressions as, "*Five yoke of oxen*," "*Ten head of cattle*," "*Fifty sail of vessels*," the plural adjective belongs to a noun in the singular.

REM. 9. — When objects are contrasted, *that* refers to the first, and *this* to the last mentioned; as, "*Wealth and poverty are both temptations; that tends to excite pride, this discontent.*"

REM. 10. — By a peculiar idiom, *the* is used with comparatives, to denote proportionate equality and is used adverbially; as, "*The more I see it, the better I like it.*"

REM. 11. — The adjective is often used as a noun, the noun to which it belongs being understood; as, "*The good are respected.*" On the other hand, the noun is often used as an adjective; as, "*Gold beads*" See Idiomatic expressions, p. 193.

REM. 12. — One adjective often limits the complex idea expressed by another adjective and a noun ; as, "Two *old horses*."

REM. 13. — The predicate, adjective or participle, following *copulative* verbs, generally indicates the manner of the action, while, at the same time, it denotes some property of the subject ; as, "The boy was made *sick*." "The fruit tastes *sweet*." "The horse came *galloping*."

REM. 14. — When two objects, or sets of objects, are compared, the comparative degree is generally used ; as, "George is *taller* than William, or is the *taller* of the two." "Our *oranges* are sweeter than *yours*."

REM. 15. — When more than two objects are compared, the superlative degree is used ; as, "Achilles was the *bravest* of the Greeks."

REM. 16. — When the comparative degree is used, the latter term should always *exclude* the former, as, "New York is larger than any other city of the United States." "He was wiser than his brothers." But when the superlative is used, the latter term should always *include* the former ; as, "Rhode Island is the smallest of the United States."

REM. 17. — *Each, one, either, and neither* belong to nouns in the third person singular. Hence, when used as nouns, verbs and pronouns should agree with them accordingly ; as, "Each of his brothers is (not *are*) well."

REM. 18. — An adjective after the participle or infinitive of the copula is sometimes used *abstractly*, referring, it may be, logically (but not grammatically) to some indefinite object ; as, "To be good is to be *happy*."

EXAMPLES to be parsed or corrected by the Remarks under Rule V.

Good men will be rewarded. William the Conqueror fought at the battle of Hastings. Shakespeare's Hamlet has been much admired. Then they, that loved the Lord, spake often one to another. The ten commandments were given by _____. The old _____ has often been repeated. He gave a thousand _____ for the house. She wore a blue and black silk dress. You may read the two *first* pages. Hope is as strong an incentive to action as fear ; *this* is the anticipation of good, *that* of evil. Of all *other* idle habits, idleness is the most _____. Let each of them be heard in their turn. He is the most _____ of all the *rest*. Every one of us *have* our faults.

RULE VI. A noun or pronoun used to *explain* or *identify* another noun or pronoun is put by apposition in the same case ; as, "William the *Conqueror* defeated Harold, the Saxon *king*."

EXAMPLES to be analyzed and parsed : —

The patriarch Abraham was accounted faithful. The Emperor Nero was a cruel tyrant. James, the royal Scottish poet, was imprisoned in Windsor Castle. In the fifth century, the Franks, a people of Germany, invaded France. Frederic William III., King of Prussia, son of Frederic William II., and Louisa, Princess of Hesse-Darmstadt, was born August 3, 1770.

Construct, analyze, and parse —

THREE EXAMPLES in which the noun in apposition shall be in the nominative, modifying the subject ; *three* in which it shall be in the nominative, modifying the predicate noun ; *three* in which it shall be in the objective, modifying a noun, used as the object of a verb or preposition.

REM. 1. — The explanatory noun or pronoun must denote the *same* person or thing as that which it identifies. It usually explains by showing the *office, rank, capacity, occupation, or character*, of the principal term ; as, "Peter the *Hermit*." "John the *Evangelist*."

REM. 2. — When, for the sake of emphasis, the *same* name is repeated, it is in apposition with the former ; as, “A *horse*, a *horse*! my kingdom for a horse.”

REM. 3. — When the limiting noun denotes a person, it generally agrees with the limited, in *number*, *gender*, and *case* ; as, “Paul the *Apostle*.”

REM. 4. — Two nouns may denote the same person or thing, and even be in the same case, but yet not in apposition. A noun in apposition assumes what by the predicate noun is *affirmed* ; as, “Adam, the first *man*.” “Adam was the first *man*.” Even when two nouns denoting the same person or thing become the objects of certain transitive (copulative) verbs, they are not properly in apposition. Compare “They called David the psalmist,” with “They called David, the psalmist,” that is, who was the psalmist.

REM. 5. — A noun or pronoun in the plural may be represented, not by one, but by two or more nouns, which, together, are equivalent to it ; as “The victims a *brother* and a *sister*.” The reverse of this rule is equally true ; as, “Intemperance, oppression, and fraud, *vices* of the age.” In the case of the reciprocal pronouns, *each other*, and *one another*, the first words, *each* and *one*, are in apposition with a preceding plural noun or pronoun, or with two or more singular nouns taken conjointly ; as, “The boys struck one another” = The boys struck — *one* struck another ; “John and David love each other” = John and David love — *each* loves the other. *Each* and *one* are in the nominative case, and *other* is in the objective case.

REM. 6. — Two or more proper names, or a title and a proper name, applied to one person, though in apposition, should be taken as one complex noun ; as, “George Washington.” “General Gates.”

REM. 7. — The proper name of a *place*, instead of being put in apposition with the common name, is usually governed by the preposition *of* ; as, “The city of *Rome*.”

REM. 8. — A noun is sometimes in apposition with a sentence, and sometimes a sentence with a noun ; as, “They devoted their whole time to the promotion of our happiness — *attentions* which we shall not soon forget.” “The *maxim*, *Enough is as good as a feast*, has silenced many a vain wish.”

REM. 9. — When possessives are in apposition, the sign of possession (*'s*) is commonly used with only one of them ; as, “John the Baptist's head.” “His *majesty* King Henry's crown.”

REM. 10. Sometimes *as*, denoting *capacity*, *rank*, or *office*, intervenes between two nouns, one of which is in apposition with the other ; as, “The moon *as* *satellite* attends.” In the example, “I am pleased with my position as a teacher,” *teacher* seems to be in apposition with the expression *my position*, denoting the same person as *my*, but taking the same case as *position*.

EXAMPLES to be parsed and corrected by the Remarks under Rule VI.

Company, villainous company, hath been the spoil of me. Absalom, the — of —, died in battle. Marcus Tullius Cicero was a great —. I am going to see my friends in the country — *they* that we visited last summer. Queen Victoria's children are carefully educated. I am pleased with her improvement as a scholar Jonathan and David loved each other. Go ye every man unto his own —. Ambition, interest, honor, all concurred. He recovered — a result which was not expected. He permitted me to make use of his —, a kindness which I shall not soon forget.

RULE VII. A noun or pronoun, used to limit another noun by denoting *possession*, must be in the possessive case

as, "Stephen's courage failed." "Their fortune was ample." "Whose work is this?"

EXAMPLES to be analyzed and parsed:—

Charles's resignation filled all Europe with astonishment. The joy of his youth was great. Rotha's bay received the ship. Her ways are ways of pleasantness, and all her paths are peace. A mother's tenderness, and a father's care, are nature's gifts for man's advantage. A chieftain's daughter seemed the maid. Yet my last thought is England's. She stooped her by the tunnel's side. Hushed were his Gertrude's lips. Our harps we left by Babel's streams.

Construct, analyze, and parse—

TWENTY EXAMPLES in which a possessive noun, or pronoun, shall limit the subject, the predicate, a noun in apposition, or a noun in the objective after a transitive verb or preposition.

CAUTION I. *In writing nouns in the possessive, never omit the possessive termination. Write man's, not mans.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected:—

On Lindens hills of blood-stained snow. It was the grand sultans palace. The nations hopes were blasted. Next Mars, Piazzis orb is seen. It is against the laws of Plutos empire. His brothers offence is not his. Midst glories glance, and victorys thunder-shout. The mans story was false. If of Drydens fire the blaze is brighter, of Popes the heat is more regular and constant.

CAUTION II. *In using pronouns in the possessive, never insert the apostrophe, nor add the letter n. Write theirs, not their's. Say his, hers, ours, yours, theirs, not hisn, hern, ourn, yourn, theirsn.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected:—

This book is your's. I listened to it's song. The slate is hisn. This map is their's. This knife is mine, and not yourn. That handkerchief is hern. These sheep are ourn. Will you drive yourn out of the pasture? Our's is a pleasant task.

CAUTION III. *Never make the limited noun plural because the possessive is plural. Say "their decision." not their decisions, one only being meant.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected:—

I will do it for your sakes. We intend, for our parts, to follow his advice. Their healths have improved. We will submit to our lots. It was not worth their whiles to remain so long in port.

REM. 1.—The relation of the possessive is one of dependence. There must, therefore, always be (expressed or understood) the name of the object possessed on which the possessive term depends. This dependence may be shown either by a change of termination, or by a preposition; as, "My father's house" = The house of my father. "The king's court" =

The court of the king. The possessive term always limits a noun, and hence it performs the function of an adjective, and in analyzing may be reckoned as an adjective element.

REM. 2. — The limited noun is often understood; as, "This pen is Mary's [pen]." "We worship at St. Paul's [church]." "This is a book of my brother's [books]." "*Mine* [that is, *my task*] is a pleasant task." After *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*, the limited noun is always understood.

REM. 3. — When two or more words are used to designate one object, the possessive sign is affixed to the last; as, "General George Washington's administration." The sign of the possessive belongs to the group, and is sometimes applied when the last word is the object of a preposition; as, "The King of *England's* death." Here *England* is in the objective after *of*.

REM. 4. — When two or more nouns in the possessive are connected coördinately; first, if they imply the possession of one object in common, the sign is applied only to the last; as, "*Little and Brown's* store;" but, secondly, if they imply the possession of different objects, though of the same name, the possessive sign should be applied to each; as, "I have an *Emerson's* and a *Greenleaf's* Arithmetic."

REM. 5. — The limited word is often a participial noun; as, "I am in favor of *his bringing* the dispute to a speedy close."

REM. 6. — Sometimes the possessive sign is annexed to an adjective used as a noun; as "This is the wretched's only plea."

EXAMPLES to be parsed and corrected by the Remarks under Rule VII.

He is at the governor's. The *Representatives* House convened to-day. I assure you it is theirs. General Franklin Pierce's administration commenced on the fourth of March, 1853. *John* and James's letters have been received. Day and Martin's blacking is celebrated. Lady, be *thine* the Christian's walk.

RULE VIII. A noun or pronoun used as the object of a transitive verb, or its participles, must be in the *objective* case; as, "He found the *object* which he desired."

EXAMPLES to be parsed:—

Ambition makes the same mistake concerning power that avarice makes concerning wealth. If you have performed an act of great and disinterested virtue, conceal it. Imperial Rome governed the bodies of men, but did not extend her empire farther. In former times, patriots prided themselves on their own poverty, and the riches of the state. He endeavored to inculcate right principles. He sought to follow the example of the good. They say that they have bought it. The truly great consider, first, how they may gain the approbation of God. He inquired, "Who comes there?"

Construct, analyze, and parse —

FIVE EXAMPLES in which a noun, *five* in which a personal pronoun, *five* in which a relative pronoun, and *five* in which an interrogative pronoun, shall be the object of a transitive verb; also *five* in which two objects shall limit either of the verbs in Rem. 9 or 12.

CAUTION I. *Never use the nominative as the object of a transitive verb.* Say, *Whom* did he visit? not *who*

EXAMPLES to be corrected:—

Who did you see yesterday? Who did he marry? They that help us we should reward. He who committed the offence thou shouldst punish not I, who am innocent. Who should I find but my cousin? Will you let him and I sit together? I did not know who to send.

REM. 1. — When a noun or pronoun is used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb, without the aid of a preposition expressed or understood, it is called the *direct object*; but when it is added to a verb, either transitive or intransitive, to show that *to* or *for* which any thing is, or is done, or that *from* which any thing proceeds, it is called the *indirect object*; as, "Ellen gave an apple to her brother."

REM. 2. — When an indirect object precedes the direct, the preposition should be omitted; when it follows, it should be expressed; as, "I lent him a book" = I lent a book to him.

REM. 3. — The indirect object is sometimes used alone with intransitive verbs, sometimes with an adjective, and in a few instances with a noun; as, "He spoke of his trials." "To me this rule is obvious." "To the hero that was a proud day."

REM. 4. — The object of a transitive verb may be an infinitive, or a substantive clause; as, "I love to write." "I have heard that he was sick."

REM. 5. — When a substantive clause is governed by the verb *say*, or its equivalent, —

(1.) It is said to be quoted *directly* (*oratio directa*) when it expresses the thought of another in his own words; as, "He said, *I will go*."

(2.) It is said to be quoted *indirectly* (*oratio obliqua*) when it expresses the thought of another in the speaker's words; as, "He said *that he would go*."

REM. 6. — Some intransitive verbs are followed by an object of kindred signification; as, "He ran a race." "She dreamed a dream."

REM. 7. — The object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive; as, "Romulus founded Rome" = *Rome was founded by Romulus*.

REM. 8. — To avoid ambiguity, the object should be placed after the verb, especially when the subject and object are both nouns; as, "Alexander conquered Darius," not, "Alexander Darius conquered;" but when the subject or object is a pronoun, the form usually determines the relation; as, "Him followed his next mate."

REM. 9. — The following verbs, *make, appoint, elect, create, constitute, render, name, style, call, esteem, think, consider, regard, reckon*, and some others, not only take after them a direct object, but predicate of it another object, which may, therefore, be called its *attribute*. The attributive object may be either a *noun*, an *adjective*, or a *verb*. "They made him an officer." "They made him sick." "They made him labor." Though it is evident that the attributive object, when a noun, denotes the same person or thing as the first, it is by no means in apposition with it. In the case of apposition, the principal noun completes the meaning of the verb, and the second limits the first; as, "They called Miles, the carpenter." But in the case of two objects, (the object and its attribute,) both are necessary to complete the meaning of the verb; as, "They called Miles a carpenter." In one case, the second noun has no grammatical relation to the verb; in the other, it is directly related, both to the verb and to the first noun. In the first example, "*carpenter*" should be parsed as a noun in the objective, put in apposition with the first, by Rule VI. In the second example, "*carpenter*" should be parsed as a noun in the objective

forming, in connection with "*Miles*," the object of "*called*," being also an *attribute* to the first object. In a similar way, parse "*sick*," and "*labor*," in the above examples; or one may be called the *first*, or *principal*, and the other the *attributive* object of the verb.

REM. 10. — This construction, in many instances, may be traced to an abridged proposition in which the infinitive has been dropped; as, "They considered *him a poet*," that is, *to be a poet*. In fact, the infinitive of the copula is often expressed, the first object representing, in the objective, what was the subject nominative; the second, in like manner, what was the predicate nominative before the proposition was abridged; as, "I knew that *he was a scholar*." "I knew *him to be a scholar*." In such cases the infinitive and second noun form the attributive object of the verb, the second noun being in the objective after "*to be*."

REM. 11. — The *infinitive* of any verb may be the second or attributive object; the first object being its subject, and the two together forming a kind of abridged proposition; as, "They ordered *the soldiers to march*." "They ordered *that the soldiers should march*."

REM. 12. — The following verbs, *buy, sell, play, sing, get, lend, draw, send, make, pass, write, pour, give, teach, leave, bring, tell, do, present, throw, carry, ask, show, order, promise, refuse, deny, provide*, and some others, take after them, besides a *direct* object, an *indirect* object, showing to or from what the action tends; as, "Give *me* a book."

REM. 13. — The indirect object is generally said to be governed by a preposition understood.

REM. 14. — When any of the above verbs assume the passive form, the direct object generally (though not always) becomes the subject; as, "A book was given *me*." The indirect object sometimes becomes the subject; as, "He was asked his *opinion*." "I was taught *grammar*." *Opinion* and *grammar* are in the objective case after a passive verb.

REM. 15. — Instead of a single word, or an infinitive, a substantive clause may become one of the objects; as, "He informed *me that the boat had sailed*."

EXERCISES to be parsed or corrected by the Remarks under Rule VIII.

Practice will make her a ready writer: Yet your mistrust cannot make me a traitor. Give that ring to me. He spoke of the diligent efforts which he had made. Let the end try the man. Joseph dreamed a dream. Then call we this the field of Agincourt. *Darius Cræsus conquered*. I will give them an everlasting name. Thou shalt make his soul an offering for sin. But I exhort them to consider the Faerie Queen as the most precious jewel of their coronet. They denied me this privilege. I was denied this privilege. He was paid the money. You were paid a high compliment. He said, "If I tell you the truth, ye will not believe me." He said that he preferred to take a different course. I prayed that God would give him strength.

RULE IX. *Adverbs* are used to limit verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs; as, "Lightning moves *swiftly*."

EXAMPLES to be analyzed and parsed —

You both are truly welcome. Speak softly, for a breath might wake her. Yet we may strongly trust his skill. How heavily her fate must weigh her down! Freely to give reproof, and thankfully to receive it, is an indispensable condition of true friendship! How happy they who wake no more. How soon man's earthly enjoyments pass away! How easily are men diverted from a good cause!

Construct, analyze, and parse —

EXAMPLES in which a verb, adjective, or an adverb shall be limited by

adverbs, *four* denoting TIME, *four*, PLACE, *four*, MANNER, *four*, NEGATION, or DEGREE.

CAUTION I. *Two negatives should never be employed to express a negation; as, "I have no book," not, "I haven't no book"*

EXAMPLES to be corrected:—

I will not take that course by no means. I did not like neither his principles nor his practice. I cannot write no more. Nothing never can justify such conduct. He will never be no better. Neither he nor no one else believes the story. I never go nowhere. I am resolved not to trust him, neither now, nor any other time. No one knows neither the causes nor the effects of such influences.

CAUTION II. *Avoid the use of an adverb when the quality of an object, and not the manner of an action, is to be expressed; as, "The apple tastes sweet," not sweetly.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected:—

His expressions sounded harshly. Satin feels very smoothly. Give him a soon and decisive answer. Such incidents are of seldom occurrence. The then emperor issued a decree. Did he arrive safely? She seemed beautifully.

CAUTION III. *Avoid the use of NO to express negation, with a verb or participle; as, "I shall not change my course of action, whether you do or not," not no.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected:—

Know now whether this be thy son's coat, or no. Tell me whether I shall do it, or no. I will ascertain if it is true, or no.

CAUTION IV. *Never use HOW before THAT, or instead of it; as, "He said that he should come," not how he should come.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected:—

He said how he believed it. She told me how that she would come if she could. He remarked how time was valuable.

REM. 1.—Some adverbs, instead of modifying any particular word, are either independent, or are used to modify an entire proposition; as, *yes*, *no*, *ay*, *amen*, *likewise* *truly*, &c. "Will you go? *Yes*." "*Truly*, God is good to Israel."

REM. 2.—Any word or group of words performing the office of an adverb is called an *adverbial* element or expression. If it be a group of words, it should first be disposed of as an adverb, and then resolved into its component parts. See Analysis.

REM. 3.—An adverb or adverbial expression should be placed so near the word which it limits as to make its relation obvious; yet no element of the sentence can be so easily transposed without causing ambiguity as

the adverbial. It may be placed at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of the sentence; as, "He *carefully* examined the document" = *Carefully* did he examine the document. He examined the document *carefully*.

REM. 4. — Adverbs are used sometimes to limit the meaning of a proposition, sometimes a phrase; as, "He held his hand *exactly* over the place." "We were absent *almost* a year."

REM. 5. — Adverbs are themselves sometimes modified by *phrases*, or *clauses*; as, "He left *four years afterwards*." "He came *some time ago*." "He ran *faster* than his brother."

REM. 6. — Conjunctive adverbs are complex words usually modifying two words, and at the same time joining an adverbial clause to the word on which it depends; as, "We shall be present *when* the boat arrives" = We shall be present *at the time at, or in which*, the boat arrives. Here, *when* modifies *present*, instead of *at the time*, and *arrives*, instead of *in which*. It also connects "the boat arrives" to *present*.

EXAMPLES to be parsed by the Remarks under Rule IX.

Did ye not hear it? No. He remained where the days of his youth were passed. He arose before the sun. The stream flowed silently on. They will be absent almost three years. It is impossible *continually* to be at work. He heard the news some time ago. And the rest will I set in order when I come. Verily I say unto you, Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth.

RULE X. The nominative case independent and the interjection have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence.

Five cases occur in which a noun or pronoun may be independent or absolute. It may be so —

(1.) *By direct address*; as, "Plato, thou reasonest well."

(2.) *By mere exclamation*; as, "O my misfortune!"

(3.) *By pleonasm*, or when the attention is drawn to an object before any thing is said of it; as, "Harry's *flesh*, it fell away." "Gad, a troop shall overcome him."

(4.) When in connection with a *participle*, it is equivalent to a proposition, of which it was the subject before the former was abridged; as, "*He having arrived*, we returned."

(5.) When, in an abridged proposition, it follows the *infinitive* or *participle* of the copula, and is uncontrolled by a preceding noun; as, "I was not aware of his being a *scholar*." "To be a *scholar* requires industry and perseverance."

EXAMPLES to be analyzed and parsed:—

Fair daffodils! we weep to see you haste away so soon. O day most calm, most bright! the fruit of this, the next world's bud! the week were dark but for this light. The pilgrim fathers, where are they? He having given us the direction, we departed. I was not aware of his being the preacher O the times! O the manners! Ah, father! these are wondrous words The savage rocks have drunk thy blood, my brother!

Construct, analyze, and parse —

FIVE EXAMPLES containing an interjection, and *two* for each of the *five* cases of nominative absolute, or independent.

REM. 1. — In the last two cases, though the *noun* is absolute, the group

of words to which it belongs, including the participle or infinitive, has some connection with the rest of the sentence.

REM. 2.—In case of the *nominative absolute*, that is, the nominative preceding a participle, sometimes the *noun* or *pronoun* is understood, and sometimes the participle; as, “*Properly speaking*, there is no such thing as cold;” that is, *we*, or *one*, speaking properly. “*This done*, and all is safe;” that is, *being done*. “*This matter at an end*, we will proceed;” *being at an end*.

REM. 3.—Both of the last two cases result from abridging a dependent clause. The abridged construction may usually be restored to a complete proposition.

EXAMPLES to be parsed or corrected by the Remarks under Rule X.

Whose gray top shall tremble, him descending. And we, what shall —— do? This done, and we are sure of success. The prophets, do they live forever? This matter finished, we will proceed. There all thy gifts and graces we display, *these*, only *these*, directing all our way. These matters arranged, the company separated. Fair pledges of a fruitful tree, why do ye fall so fast?

RULE XI. *Coördinate* conjunctions are used to connect similar elements; as, “Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob were Jewish patriarchs.”

EXAMPLES to be analyzed and parsed:—

Mrs. Unwin and Lady Hesketh were friends of Cowper. Clouds and darkness are round about him, righteousness and judgment are the habitation of his throne. They were united by ties of friendship and of kindred. I am debtor both to the Greeks and to the barbarians.

Construct, analyze, and parse—

TEN EXAMPLES in which either of the different kinds of coördinate conjunctions, connect only elements; *ten* in which they connect clauses.

CAUTION I. *In a series of coördinate terms, unless great emphasis is required, never use the conjunction, except between the last two.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected:—

They confess the power, and wisdom, and love, and goodness of their Creator. John, and James, and Heury, and Charles will return this evening. His conduct was unkind, and unjust, and unmerciful.

CAUTION II. *Avoid dissimilar and disproportionate coördinate terms.*

EXAMPLES to be corrected:—

He neither came nor was sent for. We pervert the noble faculty of speech when we use it to the defaming, or to disquiet our neighbors. We hope that we shall hear from him, and that he has returned. I always have, and I always shall be of this opinion. The work was executed with rapidity and promptly. It is a region distinguished by many charming

varieties of rural scenery, and which may be termed the Arcadia of Scotland.

RULE XII. When a verb or pronoun relates to two or more nouns connected by a coördinate conjunction, —

(1.) If it agrees with them taken *conjunctly*, it must be in the *plural number*.

(2.) But if it agrees with them taken *separately*, it must be of the same number as that which stands next to it.

(3.) If it agrees with *one*, and *not* the other, it must take the number of that one.

EXAMPLES.

"Charles and his sister *were* absent, but *they* were sent for." "Charles or his sister *was* absent." "Charles or his sisters *were* absent." "Charles, and not his sister, *was* absent."

EXAMPLES to be analyzed and parsed: —

Where was it when winds and clouds were its only visitors, and where the sun and blue heaven by day, and the moon and stars by night, alone looked down and beheld it, the same as they behold it now? One day the poor woman and her idiot boy were missed from the market-place. Neither his vote, his influence, nor his purse, was ever withheld from the cause in which he had engaged. Neither the captain nor the sailors were saved. Whether one person or more were concerned in the business does not appear.

Construct, analyze, and parse —

FOUR EXAMPLES in which a plural verb must agree with two singular nominatives, *four* in which a pronoun in the singular shall relate to two or more singular nouns.

REM. 1. — In the following cases, nouns in the singular *seem* to be taken conjunctly, and yet the verb and pronoun should be singular: —

(1.) When the coördinate nouns denote the *same* person in *different* capacities; as, "This great *statesman* and *orator* died lamented by all his friends."

(2.) When the coördinate nouns are considered *separately*, by means of such limiting words as *each*, *every*, or *no*; as, "*Each* day and *each* hour brings its own duties and trials." "*Every* apple and *every* pear *was* taken from its place." "*No* book and *no* slate should be left out of its place."

(3.) When the coördinate nouns are distinguished with emphasis by means of *not*, *only*, *too*, *as well as*, or when there is an emphatic enumeration of individuals; as, "George, and *not* James, *is* at his task." "Truth, and truth only, *is* worth seeking for its own sake." "The man, and his servant too, *was* rewarded." "The father, *as well as* his son, *was* in fault." "Thine *is* the kingdom, and the power, and the glory."

(4.) When the coördinate nouns are regarded by the mind as representing *one* thing; as, "Bread and milk *is* excellent food for children." "The horse and chaise *is* in its place."

REM. 2. — The Rule and Rem. 1 have reference only to the *number of*

the verb and pronoun. It often happens that the coördinate words are of different persons. When the coördinate parts are of different persons, the verb or pronoun agrees with the first rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third; as, "*Thou and thy sons with thee (that is, ye) shall bear the iniquity of your priesthood.*" "*John, thou and I (that is, we) are attached to our country.*"

REM. 3. — When the coördinate parts are each singular, and of different genders, several cases may arise: —

(1.) The verb may relate to them conjointly, while the pronoun may relate to but one; as, "*James and his sister were destroying her bonnet.*" "*James and his sister were destroying his cap.*"

(2.) The pronoun may relate to them taken conjointly, while the verb relates to them taken separately; as, "*James or his sister has destroyed their dictionary,*" the dictionary being theirs by a joint ownership.

(3.) When the pronoun has a common reference to both coördinate nouns taken conjointly, the gender cannot be distinguished by the pronoun, since the latter is plural, and consequently has, in English, the same form for all genders.

(4.) When the pronoun refers to two or more coördinate nouns taken separately, there is no personal pronoun, in English, applicable to each, and there is an inherent difficulty in constructing the expression properly; as, "*John or Ellen has lost his or her pencil.*" To use *his* alone or *her* alone would reveal the ownership, which is supposed to be unknown. Hence it does not avail to say that the masculine is preferred to the feminine, and the feminine to the neuter; for either would become explicit, as in case (1.) To avoid this difficulty, it is best to recast the sentence, or so construct it as to escape such a dilemma. Yet, contrary to the general rule, frequent instances occur in which the pronoun, in such cases, is put in the plural, and thus the gender is concealed; as, "*Then shalt thou bring forth that man or that woman unto thy gates, and shalt stone them with stones, till they shall die.*"

REM. 4. — When each of the coördinate parts is denoted by the same word, and that a singular noun referring to different objects, and each, except the last, is understood — being represented by some modifying word, the agreement of the verb or pronoun follows the general rule; as, "*A Webster's, a Worcester's, and a Richardson's dictionary were consulted;*" that is, three dictionaries. "*A literary, a scientific, a wealthy, and a poor man were assembled in one room.*"

EXAMPLES to be parsed and corrected by Remarks under Rule XII.

This philosopher and poet was banished from his country. Every limb and every — appears with their respective grace. Ambition, and not the safety of the state, were concerned. Bread and cheese is good for a luncheon. Then I, and you, and all of us fell down, whilst bloody treason flourished over us. John and Mary are taking care of her garden. Charles and Ellen are learning their lessons. Neither he nor I am capable of it. Wayland's and Upham's Moral Philosophy was consulted. Kefted, educated, and — people — present. Has not sloth, or pride, or ill temper, or sinful passion misled you from the path of sound and wise conduct?

RULE XIII. A preposition is used to show the relation of its object to the word on which the latter depends; as "*George went INTO the garden.*" "*A life of virtue is a life of happiness.*"

EXAMPLES to be analyzed and parsed: —

I call to you with all my voice. From end to end, from cliff to lake, 'twas

free. Her tears were now flowing without control. She is like some tender tree, the pride and beauty of the grove — graceful in its form, bright in its foliage, but with the worm preying at its heart.

Construct, analyze, and parse —

FIVE EXAMPLES in which the preposition and object shall limit a noun; *five* in which the phrase shall limit a verb, and *five* in which it shall limit an adjective or adverb.

REM. 1. — The noun or pronoun following the preposition is always dependent on some term, usually a *preceding* one, and the preposition is used to *show* that dependence. Properly speaking, the objective is not the object of the preposition, but of the preceding term. In the case of the transitive verb, there are two terms, the verb itself and the objective, and the relation between them is closer, if possible, than between those in which the preposition is used; the objective is not called the *object* of that relation, but rather of the antecedent term, the verb. Yet custom makes the noun the *object* of the preposition.

REM. 2. — Sometimes the antecedent term is omitted, and sometimes the subsequent; as, “*In a word*, he is ruined” = To express all *in a word*, &c. He looked *around* [him.] When the object is understood, the preposition is usually parsed as an adverb. *For*, used before an infinitive and its objective subject, when the group is taken as the subject of a proposition, has no antecedent term; as, “*For* him to lie is base.” The *to* of the infinitive, when both together constitute the subject, represents no relation to an antecedent term; as, “*To* lie is base.”

REM. 3. — *Between* and *betwixt* refer to two objects; *among* and *amongst* to more than two; as, “He walked *between* the trees,” (two trees.) “He walked *among* the trees,” (many trees.)

REM. 4. — Care should be observed to employ the proper preposition to show the relation intended. The proper use of the prepositions is best learned from a careful observation of the custom of good writers.

EXERCISES to be parsed or corrected by the Remarks under Rule XIII.

He was well known to all the country round. In vain he tried every remedy. For him to take such a course was not unexpected. Thou pendulum betwixt a smile and tear. I am disappointed of the work. The story is founded in facts. I left my books to home. I entertain no prejudice to him. That was agreeable with his principles. They resided at Italy. There is eternal war between me and thee

RULE XIV. A noun or pronoun used as the *object* of a preposition must be in the objective case; as, “The ruins of the *Parthenon* stand *upon* the *Acropolis* in the *city* of *Athens*.”

EXAMPLES to be analyzed and parsed:—

A similar improvement may be made of the memory of our good deeds. What ground of hope is there so sure to his spirit, next to the mercy of his God, and the intercession of Christ, his Savior? It was not long before he returned with his man, whom he introduced to me as a person of exceeding honesty; and we went into the yard all together.

Construct, analyze, and parse —

(1) EXAMPLES in which *of*, or any other preposition with a noun, shall describe another noun.

(2) EXAMPLES in which *in*, *at*, *during*, *since*, *about*, *after*, *before*

between, by, ere, from, till, to, and toward, with a noun, shall denote the time of an action, or answer the question *When? How long? or How often?*

(3.) EXAMPLES in which *aboard, about, above, across, against, along, amidst, among, around, at, athwart, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, down, from, in, into, on, out of, over, round, through, throughout, to, toward, under, underneath, up, upon*, with a noun, shall denote the place of an action, or answer the question *Where?*

(4.) EXAMPLES in which *from, for, by, out of*, with a noun, shall denote the cause, source, or origin of an act, answering the question *Why? On what account? or From what source?*

(5.) EXAMPLES in which *with, without, in, on, by, within*, with a noun, shall show the manner of an action, or answer the question *How?*

REM. 1. — The preposition is omitted, or rather seldom, if ever, used, before nouns denoting *time, measure, distance, value*, or after the words *like, near, nigh, worth*; as, "The wall is six feet high." "We walked twenty miles that day." "He helped a worthy man, and is not a penny poorer." "He is like [to] his father." "They live near [to] the city." "We came nigh [to] the gate." "The book is worth a dollar." The word *worth* is by some called a preposition; but it can be predicated of a noun, like an adjective, and it can be qualified by an adverb; as, "The matter is well worth your attention." True, it is not easy to supply a preposition after it, nor is it after *high* or *revolves* in the following examples: "The house is forty feet high." "The wheel revolves ninety times in a minute."

REM. 2. — Prepositions are sometimes followed by *adjectives* or *adverbs*, an object in some cases being understood; as, "*In vain*" = *In a vain manner, on high, in secret, at first, at once, from thence, from above, till now, forever, till lately, &c.*

REM. 3. — *Than* before *whom* seems to perform the office of a preposition; as, "*Than whom none higher sat.*" This construction is rare in modern usage, and should be avoided as anomalous.

EXERCISES to be parsed or corrected by the Remarks under Rule XIV.

We walked a great distance this morning. The child is like his mother. Pray to thy Father, which is in secret. They could not be convinced at first. That has never occurred until recently. It was worth the money. Near yonder copse, the village preacher's modest mansion rose. I was resolved, at least, to know my letters. He came from afar. He lived in the country, near the city.

RULE XV. *Subordinate connectives* are used to join dissimilar elements; as, "He *that* hath pity on the poor lendeth to the Lord."

EXAMPLES to be analyzed and parsed: —

We have brought nothing into this world; therefore we shall take nothing out. While there is life, there is hope. However friendly he might appear, his heart was full of anger. Herod wished to know where the star had appeared. Whether the moon has an atmosphere has not been ascertained. He that plants trees loves others beside himself. What comes from the heart goes to the heart. Time will bring to light whatever is hidden. The more we serve God, the better we serve ourselves. As far as the eye could see, all was ruin and desolation. Work as long as you can. The more one has, the more he requires. Revenge always costs more than it is worth. That you may be loved, be deserving of love. If you would thrive, you must rise at five.

Construct, analyze, and parse—

FIVE EXAMPLES in which *who*, *which*, and *that* shall join an adjective clause to the subject; *five* in which they shall join the clause to the object of a verb or preposition; *five* in which they shall join the clause to the predicate nominative.

FIVE EXAMPLES in which *who*, or *whoever*, shall connect an adjective clause to some indefinite subject or object (*he* or *any one*) understood.

FIVE EXAMPLES in which *what*, *which*, *whatever*, *whichever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever*, shall first limit, as an adjective, a definite noun expressed, and then connect to it an adjective clause; *five* in which they shall limit or represent an indefinite noun (thing) understood.

TEN EXAMPLES in which *that*, *whether*, *when*, *why*, *where*, *how*, *who*, *which*, *what*, introduce substantive clauses used as the subject; (see Item. 1;) *ten* in which they are used as an object of a transitive verb.

TEN EXAMPLES in which *where*, *whither*, *whence*, *wherever*, *whithersoever*, *as far as*, *as long as*, *farther than*, shall connect an adverbial clause of place to a verb or adjective.

FIFTEEN EXAMPLES in which *when*, *while*, *whilst*, *as*, *before*, *after*, *ere*, *till*, *until*, *since*, *whenever*, *as long as*, *as soon as*, *the moment*, *the instant*, shall connect adverbial clauses denoting time to a verb or adjective.

EXAMPLES for each of the following causal connectives: *because*, *for*, *as*, *whereas*, *since*; (conditional,) *if*, *though*, *except*, *provided that*; (purpose,) *that*, *that not*, *lest*; (adversative,) *though*, *although*, *notwithstanding*, *however*, *while*, and *as*, (with an adjective—“*Hard as it was.*”)

EXAMPLES for each of the following, denoting manner: (*correspondence*,) *as*, *just*—*as*, *so*—*as*; (*consequence*,) *so*—*that*, *such*—*that*; (*comparison of equality*,) *as*—*as*; (*comparison of inequality*,) *than*, *more*—*than*, *less*—*than*; (*proportionate equality*,) *the*—*the*, *the more*—*the more*, or *the less*.

REM. 1.—*That*, *whether*, or the various interrogatives *when*, *where*, &c., when used to introduce a substantive clause employed as the subject of a proposition, do not connect the clause to an antecedent term, since the subject can be subordinate to no other part of the proposition. These connectives thus used serve to convert a principal proposition into a subordinate substantive proposition which, like any other noun, may be used as the subject.

REM. 2.—In many cases the subordinate connective has a corresponding word in the principal clause called the correlative; as, “*Then—when*, *there—where*, *if—then*, *though—yet*, *so—that*, *so—as*, *as—as*, *the, this, that, these, those—who, that, or which*.

REM. 3.—The subordinate connective always unites the clause which it introduces to the word which the clause limits; as, “*I PERCEIVE THAT you need assistance.*”

REM. 4.—Subordinate connectives are a kind of *preposition* placed before a sentence which is to be converted into a *noun*, *adjective*, or *adverb*. Hence their *position* is almost invariably at the head of the clause.

ABRIDGED PROPOSITIONS.

A proposition is said to be *abridged* when its predicate is changed to an *infinitive* or to a *participle*, the former partak-

ing of the nature of a *noun*, the latter partaking of the nature of an *adjective*; as, "The light shines." "The light *to shine*," or "for the light *to shine*." "The light *shining*," or "*having* shined."

A complex sentence may be reduced to a *simple*, or a *contracted complex* sentence, by abridging its subordinate clause; as, 'A man *who perseveres* will prosper' = A *persevering* man will prosper. "When we entered the city, we found all in commotion" = *On entering the city*, we found all in commotion. "I knew he was an honest man" = I knew him *to be an honest man*.

REM. — The *connective* of the subordinate clause is dropped; as, "I thought *that* he was alone" — I thought him alone. But in such examples as, "I know not *what* to do; *whom* to send — *which* to leave — *where* to go — *when* to stop — *how* to begin, the connective is not dropped, since it contains something material to the sense, not previously expressed. See page 104, Rem. 2.

The *infinitive* is commonly employed in abridging a *substantive* clause, and the *participle* in abridging the *adjective* or *adverbial* clause.

When the predicate consists of the copula and attribute, the infinitive or participle of the copula indicates the abridgment; and the attribute remains unchanged, unless something in the dependence of the abridged expression causes a change.

EXERCISE.

Abridge the dependent clauses in the following complex sentences:—

Vapors rise, because they are light. If wishes were horses, beggars would ride. If we subdue not our passions, they will subdue us. That fine feathers make fine birds, we can see every day. Therein consists our true merit, that we fulfil our duties. Our own conscience will tell us whether our actions are right. Those who play with edge tools must expect to be cut. He should have silver on his tongue whose purse is empty. When we shall die is kindly concealed from us. The sluggard knows not how sweet is repose after labor. Whom we love we also esteem. Superstitious persons imagine that there are ghosts. Never expect others will always do what they promise.

THE SUBJECT IN THE ABRIDGED EXPRESSION.

I. The subject of the dependent proposition is retained in the abridged expression, when it has not been expressed in the principal clause, —

(1.) In the *nominative* absolute, (see Rule X.;) as, "When the party arrived, the dinner was prepared" = The *party* having arrived, the dinner was prepared.

(2.) In the *possessive* limiting the abridged predicate used as a noun; as, "I was not aware that *David* had come" = I was not aware of *David's* having come.

(3.) In the *objective*, when the abridged expression follows a transitive verb, or a preposition, (see Rule VIII., Rem. 11;) as, "I knew that *he* was present" = I knew *him* to be present. "It was improper that *he* should go" = It was improper for *him* to go.

II. The subject may be dropped when its equivalent is expressed in the principal clause; as, "A *prince who* was renowned for his courage succeeded to the command" = A *prince* renowned for his courage, &c. "I wish that *I* might go" = *I* wish to go.

THE PREDICATE NOUN OR PRONOUN.

The predicate noun or pronoun is always retained, appearing, —

(1.) In the *nominative* case, (a.) when the subject remains in the nominative; as, "Since *he* was her *teacher*, she must learn" = *He* being her *teacher*, she must learn; (b.) when (the subject being dropped) it is placed in apposition (with or without the participle of the copula) with a noun in the nominative; as, "*Paul, who* was an *apostle*" = *Paul* [being] an *apostle*. (c.) When the subject is so changed as to have no control over its case; as, "I am sure that this *man* is a *foreigner*" = I am sure of this *man's* being a *foreigner*. "I am certain that *it* is *he*" = I am certain of *its* being *he*.

(2.) In the *objective* case, (a.) when the subject is changed to the objective; as, "I believe that *it* is *he*" = I believe *it* to be *him*. (b.) When (the subject being dropped) it is put in apposition with an objective; as, "We found a *fossil which* is called the *trilobite*" = We found a *fossil* called the *trilobite*.

THE INFINITIVE.

RULE XVI. The *infinitive* has the construction of the *noun*, with the signification and limitations of the verb, and,

when dependent, is governed by the word which it limits. as, "*To err* is human." "They desire *to travel* in a foreign country." "He wishes *to obtain* a treatise on the deposition of dew."

NOTE. — It will be seen that the first infinitive, *to err*, is a noun in the nominative case, and the remaining two, *to travel* and *to obtain*, are used as nouns in the objective case, both being limited as if they were finite verbs.

EXAMPLES *to be analyzed and parsed* : —

Full of admiration, I hardly know how to express my devotion. We ought to learn as long as we live. Let any man resolve to do right now, leaving then to do it as it can; and if he were to live to the age of Methuselah, he would never do wrong. We did think it writ down in our duty to let you know of it. And what wealth would not many a sinner give to purchase that which the wealth of both the Indies is too poor to buy? We stretched out a willing hand to heal, to help, to guide, to save. I might compare these faculties to the valuable friends, who are always found ready to minister to our amusement, and participate in our gayety, and equally ready to counsel our sober hours, and assist our emergencies with effectual help.

The infinitive may be used with or without a subject; as, "We wish *you* to stay." "We wish *to stay*."

I. *The infinitive may have a subject in the objective; as,*
"They ordered *him* to leave."

(1.) The infinitive of the copula may also have a *predicate objective*; as, "I knew *him* to be a preacher."

(2.) The infinitive with its subject may be the *subject* of a proposition; the phrase must then be introduced by *for*; as, "*For you to deceive* is criminal." "*For him to be a scholar* is impossible."

(3.) The infinitive and its subject may be made the *object of a transitive verb, or of the preposition for*; as, "He ordered *the horse* to be harnessed." "They considered *him* [to be] a traitor." "They appointed *him* [to be] chairman." See Rule VIII., Rem. 10 and 11. "They ordered some water *for the boy* to drink."

(4.) When the infinitive, (with or without its objective subject,) follows *bid, dare, let, need, make, see, hear, and feel*, in the active voice, the "*to*" is omitted; as, "I saw *him* do it." "They let *him* go." "We heard them *sing*."

II. *The infinitive usually occurs without its subject; as*
"They wish *to walk*."[●]

(1.) The infinitive alone may be used as the *subject* of a proposition by Rule I.; as, "*To retaliate* is censurable."

(2.) The infinitive alone may be used as the attribute of a proposition by Rule II.; as, "To obey is *to enjoy*."

NOTE. — When the infinitive is thus used, it denotes, (1.) An *equivalent term*; as "To pray is to supplicate." (2.) What is *possible or obligatory*; as, "The passage is *to be found*." "Our duty is *to be done*." (3.) What is settled or determined upon; as, "The work is *to commence to-morrow*."

(3.) The infinitive, without its subject, may be the *object* of a transitive verb, a preposition, or it may be used to complete the meaning of some intransitive verbs; as, "He wishes *to remain*." "They are about *to go*." "She seems *to sleep*."

(4.) The infinitive may be used as an *adjective element* or *noun in apposition*, limiting another noun; as, "Time *to come*." "A desire *to go*." "A hope *to recover*." "A wish *to stay*."

(5.) The infinitive may be used *adverbially*, —

(1.) To denote *purpose*, or *motive*; as, "What went ye out *to see*?"

NOTE. — In this use the infinitive is sometimes said to be absolute; as, "*To confess the truth*, I was in fault."

(2.) To denote a *result*, after *too*, *than*, *so* — as; as, "He is *too* proud *to beg*." "He is *wiser than to attempt* such an enterprise." "Be *so good as to hear me*."

REM. 1. — The preposition *for* should never be used before the infinitive employed to express *motive* or *purpose*; also the sign *to* should not be used at the close of a sentence; as, "He went *to see*," not *for to see*. "He spoke, or intended to speak," not *intended to*.

REM. 2. — The infinitive is often understood; as, "They considered him [to be] upright."

EXERCISE ON THE INFINITIVE.

I have brought a book for you to read. Johnson declared wit to consist in finding out resemblances. These passages prove that materialists will sometimes find Hume to be a very dangerous ally. For him to assert and deny the same sentiment on different pages, is proof of the instability of his opinions. It was well for him to die at his post, with his armor on. I heard him repeat whole pages of poetry. Few things are more destructive to the best interests of society than the prevalent but mistaken notion that it requires a vast deal of talent to be a successful knave. It is a disgrace to be the author of such a report. To take away the benevolent affections from the moral world would be like extinguishing the sun from the natural. I love to roam over the green fields. He seems to think the rule inapplicable to his case. They appear to rest upon the solid earth. A desire to see his face once more induced us to attempt the journey. The work is to be commenced to-morrow. To be good is to be happy. They remained to see what was to be done. He was too feeble to write a letter. Will you be so good as to pass me that book?

RULE XVII. Participles have the construction of *adjectives* and *nouns*, and are limited like *verbs*; as, "He, *stooping* down, and *looking* in, saw the linen clothes *lying*; yet went he not in." "A habit of sincerity in *acknowledging* faults is a guard against *committing* them."

EXAMPLES to be analyzed and parsed: —

He employs part of his time in teaching his brother arithmetic. There is no doubt of his being a great statesman. The young maiden was seen standing on the shore, exposed to the merciless winds, and extending her hands towards heaven. Whom not having seen we love; in whom

believing we rejoice. In avoiding one error, do not fall into another. By consulting the best authors, he became learned. Draw not thy bow before naving fixed thy arrow. A drowning man will catch at a straw. Stretching from horizon to horizon, losing itself like a limitless wall in the clouds above, it came pouring its green and massive waters onward, while the continual and rapid crash of falling forests, and crushed cities, and upturned mountains, thus prostrated, one after another, under its awful power, and the successive shrieks that pierced the heavens, rising even above the roar of the on-rushing ocean, as city after city, kingdom after kingdom, disappeared, produced terror and horror inconceivable, indescribable.

I. *The participle used as an adjective ASSUMES of its subject what the verb ASSERTS*; as, "*Hyacinths blooming.*" "*Hyacinths bloom.*"

(1.) The participle may be used wholly as an adjective; it is then called a *participial adjective*, and is placed before the noun; as, "*The rising sun.*" "*The roaring billows.*"

(2.) The participle may be used like an adjective, having the same signification and limitations as the verb; the participle, with the words which limit it, is then called the *participial construction*; as, "*Encouraged by this magnificent invitation*, the inhabitants of the globe considered labor as their only friend."

(3.) The participle of the copulative verbs may be followed by a predicate nominative, (1.) When the noun or pronoun to which it belongs is nominative. (2.) When the noun or pronoun to which it logically belongs is changed to the possessive; as, "*He being an accomplished writer.*" "I have heard of *his* being an accomplished writer."

(4.) The participle of copulative verbs may be followed by a predicate objective when the noun or pronoun to which it belongs is in the objective; as, "*We regarded him as being a good writer.*" "*He intrusted his son to a gentleman named Edric.*"

(5.) The participle, like the adjective, may be used with the copula to form the predicate; but in this construction it is regarded as a form of the verb; as, "*They were riding.*" "*He was deceived.*"

II. *The participle may be used either wholly as a noun, or as a noun having the meaning and limitations of the verb*; as, "*It is pleasant to walk at the rising of the sun.*" "*We should avoid giving pain to others.*"

(1.) The participle used wholly as a noun is preceded by an article or adjective, and followed by *of*; as, "*The sighing of the poor.*" "*The crying of the needy.*" In this case the participle cannot be limited, like the verb.

(2.) The participle having the construction of the noun with the meaning and limitations of the verb may be the *subject*, or *predicate nominative* or the *object* of a transitive verb or preposition; as, "*Loving our neighbor as ourselves is fulfilling the law.*" "*Stealing is taking without liberty.*" "*We should avoid breaking a promise.*" "*On approaching the house, the sound of a bell was faintly heard.*"

(3.) In this construction the participle is called the *participial noun* and, as such, may be limited by a noun or pronoun in the possessive.

"What do you think of *his writing* a letter — *his being* a writer?" For this last, see I. 3, above.

EXERCISE ON THE PARTICIPLE.

A far more interesting personage in their mythology was the god of the air. It is doing injustice to the heroic war god of antiquity to identify him with this monster. We expect the dancing master to teach our children "manners," as well as the act of cutting awkward capers to music. Why is the experiment of an extended republic to be rejected? He came near being devoured by a panther. These islanders are far from being cannibals. The case is well worth considering. They came upon him without his being apprised of their approach. The urchin's becoming so respectable a man surprised every one. The gentleman's reputation as a scholar was the cause of his being appointed professor of rhetoric.

They narrowly escaped being taken prisoners. Being convinced of his guilt, we resolved to punish him. We desecrated a vessel stripped of its masts. Having declined the proposal, I determined on a course suited to my own taste. They have said, Come, and let us cut them off from being a nation. He had been there but a short time, before the old man alighted from his gig, with the apparent intention of becoming his guest. Such persons commence by being their own masters, and finish by being their own slaves. He had just been reading a book called the "Young Man's Guide." I cannot understand adding three columns at once. On our arriving at the pier, all was commotion.

PECULIARITIES AND IDIOMS.

I. IN THE CLASSIFICATION, USES, AND PROPERTIES OF WORDS AND SENTENCES.

A. THE SAME WORD AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

- WHAT is** (1.) An *interrogative pronoun*; as, "*What* do you see?"
 (2.) A *compound relative*; as, "He received *what* he wanted."
 (3.) An *interjection*; as, "*What!* have you come?"
 (4.) A *limiting adjective*; as, "He gave me *what* books I needed."
 (5.) An *adverb*; as, "The enemy having his country wasted, *what* (*partly*) by himself, and *what* (*partly*) by the soldiers, findeth succor in no place."
- THAT is** (1.) A *subordinate conjunction*; as, "I know *that* he is faithful."
 (2.) A *relative pronoun*; as, "An idler is a watch *that* (which) wants both hands."
 (3.) A *limiting adjective*; as, "*That* book is soiled."
- As is** (1.) Part of a compound *preposition*; as, "*As* to that, said the pendulum."
 (2.) A *subordinate connective*, when it denotes, —

- (a.) *Manner* ; as, "Speak *as* you think."
- (b.) *Comparison of equality* ; as, "He is *as* large as his brother."
- (c.) *Time* ; as, "I arrived *as* (when) he was taking his leave."
- (d.) *Cause or reason* ; as, "*As* (since) a youth was their leader, what could they do?"
- (e.) *Correspondence* ; as, "*As* the door turneth on its hinges, so doth the slothful man upon his bed."

NOTE — Besides the above uses, it takes the place of the relative pronoun (though never properly a relative) after *such*, *same*, and *many* ; as, "Such *as* I have, give I unto thee."

- (3.) A mere *index* of apposition, or of a peculiar relation of some property to its object ; as, "The moon *as* satellite attends." "They regarded him *as* innocent."
- BUT is**
 - (1.) A *coordinate conjunction* ; as, "He is not sick, *but* faint."
 - (2.) A *preposition* ; as, "They gave him all *but* (except) one."
 - (3.) An *adverb* ; as, "We saw him *but* (only) twice."
- MUCH is**
 - (1.) A *noun* ; as, "Where *much* is given, *much* is required."
 - (2.) An *adjective* ; as, "*Much* ado is made."
 - (3.) An *adverb* ; as, "I was *much* pleased with the visit."
- FOR is**
 - (1.) A *subordinate connective* ; as, "The battle ceased along the plain, *for* the bard had sung the song of peace."
 - (2.) A *preposition* ; as, "The soldier fought *for* glory."

NOTE. — The same is true of *after*, *before*, *since*, *till*, *until*, &c.

- WHEN is**
 - (1.) An *interrogative adverb* ; as, "*When* did you arrive?"
 - (2.) A *subordinate connective* ; as, "*When* sinners entice thee, consent thou not."

NOTE. — The same is true of all the interrogatives ; as, *where*, *why*, *how*, &c., &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the following words : —

What! have you but one book for me? I knew that that was the tree that was girdled. As you have what you will need for the present, I shall give much of what remains to your sister as a reward. All but three of these rivers are navigable; but you must recollect I shall tell you this but once; for it is unpleasant to repeat.

B. THE SAME PART OF SPEECH IN DIFFERENT RELATIONS AND USES.

I. The noun may be used, —

- (a.) *As a noun.*
 - (1.) In the nominative as *subject* ; as, "*Kings* reign."
 - (2.) In the nominative as *attribute* ; as, "He is a *pupil*."

- (3.) In the nominative in *apposition*; as, "George the *king* reigned."
- (4.) In the nominative *independent*; as, "O, George, the king."
- (5.) In the possessive always as a *modifier*; as, "David's harp."
- (6.) In the objective as *subject* of an infinitive; as, "I told John to go."
- (7.) In the objective as *attribute* after an infinitive; as, "I took it to be John."
- (8.) In the objective after a *transitive verb*; as, "He writes letters."
- (9.) In the objective after a *preposition*; as, "He sits upon a sofa."
- (10.) In the objective in *apposition*; as, "They visited John the printer."

(j.) *As an adjective, or adjectively.*

- (1.) Without a *preposition*; as, "A gold pencil." "A safety lamp."

NOTE — Nouns thus used should be called adjectives. In many languages they undergo some change of termination, and in some instances in our own; as, "A broken gate." But we say, "A brass kettle." So, "A golden censer," but never "A golden watch." See "Idiomatic Constructions."

- (2.) With a *preposition*; as, "A man of wisdom" = A wise man.

(c.) *As an adverb, or adverbially.*

- (1.) Without a *preposition*; as, "He did it four times a day."

NOTE. — In such constructions, it is customary, but scarcely necessary, to suppose a *preposition* understood.

- (2.) With a *preposition*; as, "He labored with assiduity."

2. The pronoun may be used, —

(a.) *The PERSONAL in all respects like the noun.*

(b.) *The RELATIVE and INTERROGATIVE the same, with the exception that they can never be used in apposition, and the relative seldom, if ever, as predicate nominative.*

3. The adjective may be used, —

(a.) *As an adjective.*

- (1.) To *limit* or *qualify* a noun; as, "Good men."
- (2.) To denote a *predicated* quality; as, "He is wise."

(b.) *As a noun.*

- (1.) Wholly as a noun, (a.) When it is taken *abstractly*; as, "Goodness," "Virtue;" (b.) When it receives the plural ending; as, "The blacks are abused."
- (2.) To stand as a noun, when the latter represents some indefinite person or thing; as, "The wicked." "The good." "The true."

(c.) *As an adverb, or adverbially*, when by *enallage* it qualifies a verb; as, "They fall successive, and successive rise;" or when in the predicate it expresses a quality which the subject acquires by means of an action; as, "The bread was baked brown;" that is the bread became brown by means of *baking*.

4. The verb may be used, —

- (a.) *As a predicate*, in the various forms, modes, tenses, numbers, and persons.
- (b.) *As a noun*.
 - (1.) *Wholly so*, with some substantive termination, when taken abstractly; as, "Move," "Movement," "Act," "Action."
 - (2.) *Partially so*, when it has the meaning and limitations of the verb, with the construction of the noun; as, "To see the sun is pleasant." "Seeing the sun is pleasant." (See Rules XVI. and XVII.)
- (c.) *As an adjective*, when the action is assumed of the subject.
 - (1.) It may be *wholly an adjective*; as, "A floating population."
 - (2.) *Partially so*, when it has the construction of the adjective and the limitations of the verb; as, "The flag floating in the breeze." (See Rule XVII.)

NOTE. — The verbal noun can be put in all the relations of the noun, except the possessive case.

5. The adverb is used, —

- (a.) *To limit a verb, adjective, or other adverb*; as, "Speak distinctly." "He was very dull." "He moves too slowly."
- (b.) *Sometimes, though not properly, as an adjective*; as, "Thine often infirmities."

6. Prepositions are used, —

- (a.) *To show relations*; as, "The love of truth."
- (b.) *As adverbs*. "Will you walk in?"
- (c.) *Rarely as adjectives*; as, "The above quotation." "The rain is over."

7. Conjunctions are used simply as connectives.

8. Interjections are used to express emotions.

REM. — Any word, whatever be its classification, when used merely as a word, is a noun. The same may be said of a group of words

C. THE SAME WORD, ELEMENT, OR SENTENCE IN ITS DIFFERENT PROPERTIES.*

A word may be considered, —

- (a.) *As the representative of a SOUND*.
 - (1.) It may be classified as a *monosyllable*, *disyllable*, *trisyllable* *polysyllable*.

* The object of this division is to present, at a glance, the different methods which may be resorted to, in order to give interest and variety to drill exercises in language. The study of language becomes dull and dry when parsing alone is attended to. The teacher may resort to any or all of these methods.

- (2.) It may be analyzed into its *syllables*. The *accented* syllable may be pointed out. As an exercise on accent, the syllables, in turn, may be accented by the pupil.
 - (3.) Each syllable may be separated into its *vowel* and *consonant* elements, and each may be described.
- (b.) *As to its FORMATION.*
- (1.) It may be *simple*, *derivative*, or *compound*.
 - (2.) If derivative, or compound, it may be *analyzed* into its *primitive* part or parts, its *prefixes* and *suffixes*. The effect of each may be given, and all the *alterations*, or *changes*, which the parts undergo.
- (c.) *As to its MEANING or USE.*
- (1.) What part of speech is it? Why? Is it ever used as any other part of speech? Give an example.
 - (2.) Parse it. Now, suppose it to be changed in any of its modifications, as *number*, *person*, *gender*, *case*, *mode*, *tense*, *voice*, *degree of comparison*; what other changes in the sentence must take place to correspond?
 - (3.) Change its relation in the sentence, or construct another sentence in which it shall be either a different part of speech, or in a different relation.
- (d.) *As to its RELATION in construction.*
- (1.) Is it a *principal* or a *subordinate* term, or is it both?
 - (2.) Point out its principal term; point out its subordinate term. Read it with each.
 - (3.) Is its relation *represented* or *unrepresented*? If represented, point out the relation-word, and describe it. Read it with its superior term, omitting the relation-word, thus: "*Trees garden*;" then read it, inserting the words, "*Trees of the garden*."
- (e.) *As to the number of FUNCTIONS it performs.*
- (1.) Does it perform but one office, requiring but one rule of syntax, or does it perform two or more? How many rules are applied in parsing a personal pronoun? A relative pronoun? The relative *what*, when placed before its antecedent?
 - (2.) Explain it in all its functions.
- (f.) *As to its APPLICATION.*
- (1.) Is it *correct* in its application, or it is *misapplied*?
 - (2.) Is it *elegantly* applied, or has it merely a *plain* or *common* application?
 - (3.) Is it used *figuratively*? What is the figure?
 - (4.) Is the word *modern* or *antique*? as, "*Fetch*" = *bring*. "*Wist*" = *know*. "*Let*" = *hinder*.
 - (5.) Is it *low*, *vulgar*, or *provincial*? If so, give the correct word.
 - (6.) What other word has nearly the same application? Substitute it, and point out the difference.
 - (7.) Can the expression be improved? If so, improve it.

An *element* may be considered, —

(a.) *As a whole.*

- (1.) If it is a single *word*, it may then be parsed; if a *phrase*

clause, it may first be parsed as if it were one word, by calling it *substantive*, *adjective*, or *adverbial*, as the case may be, and by giving its construction as if it were a single part of speech.

- (2.) Its *relation* may be given, whether subordinate or principal; also its antecedent or subsequent term.
 - (3.) It may be *transformed* by *expanding* or *abridging* it, and in its transformed state it may be regarded, as a whole, *equivalent* to the element in its former state.
- (b.) *As composed of parts.*
- (1.) If it is a *phrase*, point out the connective and object.
 - (2.) If it is a *clause*, point out the connective, and analyze the clause.
 - (3.) If it is *complex*, point out and dispose of the *basis*, then the term depending upon this, then the next, and the next, in the order of dependence.
 - (4.) If it is *compound*, point out its component parts, and dispose of them separately, giving first their relation (coördinate) to each other, and then their common relation (subordinate) to the term on which they depend.
 - (5.) If it is *transposed*, restore it to its natural position.
 - (6.) If *elliptical*, supply the ellipsis.
 - (7.) If *incorrectly constructed*, point out the error, and correct it.
 - (8.) If it is left blank, or given as an exercise to be constructed, construct it, in the *relation*, *form*, *condition*, or *modification* required.

A sentence may be considered, —

- (a.) *As a whole.*
- (1.) Is it *declarative*, *interrogative*, *imperative*, or *exclamatory*?
 - (2.) Is it *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*?
 - (3.) Is it *close* or *loose* in its structure?
 - (4.) *Transform* it from *declarative* to *interrogative*, &c.; from *compound* to *complex*, &c.
- (b.) *As composed of parts.*
- (1.) Analyze it into its elements.
 - (2.) Trace the relation of the most remote word up to the subject, or the relation of the subject down to the most remote term, pointing out all the connectives or relation-words.
 - (3.) Reconstruct the sentence; take some other noun or pronoun, standing in a remote relation, and make that the subject, or change it for the purpose of improving the *arrangement*, *unity*, or *harmony* of its parts.
 - (4.) Construct a sentence so as to make it represent a *scene* or mental *picture*, relating to *clouds*, *dew*, *vapor*, *rain*; a *meadow*, a *valley*, a *stream of water*, a *flower*, a *flock of birds*, &c., &c., &c.

NOTE. — By exercises varied as above, and in many other ways, such as the benignity of the teacher will suggest, the whole subject of language may be made intensely interesting to children. It will be well, at length, to analyze whole paragraphs into the sentences which compose them, pointing out the relation of each sentence to the general thought.

II. PECULIARITIES IN THE FORM, CONSTRUCTION, AND APPLICATION OF WORDS.

These peculiarities are called *figures*. A *figure* is a deviation from the ordinary *form*, *construction*, and *application* of a word. Hence figures are divided into those of *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Rhetoric*.

FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

A figure of Etymology is a deviation from the ordinary *form* of a word.

Figures of Etymology consist either in a *defect*, an *excess*, or a *change*, in some of the elements of a word.

Aphæresis cuts off a letter or syllable from the *beginning* of a word ; as, 'gainst, 'gan, for *against*, *began*.

Syncope removes a letter or syllable from the *middle* of a word ; as, o'er, e'er, lov'd, for *over*, *ever*, *loved*.

Apocope cuts off a letter or syllable from the *end* of a word ; as *th'*, *tho'*, for *the*, *though*.

Prosthesis adds a letter or syllable to the *beginning* of a word ; as, adown, enchain, for *down*, *chain*.

Epenthesis adds a letter or syllable to the *middle* of a word ; as, preventative, retraction, for *preventive*, *retraction*. This figure seldom occurs in English.

Paragoge adds a letter or syllable to the *end* of a word ; as, withouten, bounden, for *without*, *bound*.

Synæresis contracts two syllables into one ; as, thou'rt 'tis, for *thou art*, *it is*.

Diaresis separates two vowels which otherwise might form a diphthong ; as, coördinate, zoölogy.

Tmesis separates a compound word by inserting a word between its parts ; as, to us ward, for *toward us*.

EXERCISE.

Point out the figures in the following examples : —

Around 'gan Marmion wildly stare.

The lamps shone *o'er* fair women and brave men
Did ye not hear it? No: 'twas but the wind.

'Tis mine to teach *th'* inactive hand to reap
Kind nature's bounties, *o'er* the globe *diffus'd*.

O, *what's* the matter? *what's* the matter?
What *is't* that ails young Harry Gill?

A heart has *throbb'd* beneath that leathern breast,
And tears *adown* that dusky cheek have rolled.

He led, I wot, the softest way to death,
And taught *withouten* pain and strife to yield the breath.

What figures would you employ to render the following lines harmonious:—

It is the sunset of life gives me mystical lore.

For *we have* sworn, by our countries assaulters,
By the virgins *they have dragged* from our altars

And *every* tempest howling *over* his head
Renders the savage wilderness more wild.

FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

A figure of Syntax is a deviation from the ordinary construction of a word.

Figures of Syntax consist in a *defect*, an *excess*, or a *change* in some of the elements of a sentence.

Ellipsis is the omission of a word, phrase, or clause, which is necessary to complete the construction; as, "We were absent [during] one day."

It should be understood that the words omitted by this figure as truly belong to the sentence, grammatically considered, as those which are expressed. They are omitted for rhetorical effect, that is, to render the sentence more agreeable and forcible.

Ellipsis generally takes place, —

1. In *coördinate* constructions, to avoid the repetition of some common part; as, —

"There are some who write, [and who] talk, [and who] think so much about vice and [about] virtue, that they have no time to practise either the one or the other."

2. In certain *subordinate* constructions, especially those which denote comparison, for the same reason; as, —

"Revenge is a stronger feeling than gratitude [is.]" "Our minds are as different as our faces [are.]"

3. In certain *idiomatic* constructions : —

(1.) In *elements of the first class* — the *subject* of imperative sentences; as, "Go [thou.]" "Awake [ye.]" The noun after adjectives or after the possessive case; as, "The *violent* [persons] take it by force." "This book is *mine*," i. e., *my book*.

(2.) In *elements of the second class*. The *connective* may be omitted. Examples. The *to* before the indirect object; as, "He gave [to] me a book." The *to* of the infinitive after *bid, dare, let, make, hear, need, feel, see*. *To* or *unto* after *like, near*; as, like [to] his father, near [to] the house. *During, over, for, in, or on*, before nouns, denoting *time, the measure of distance, magnitude, or excess*; as, "They left [on] Monday." "They travelled [through] twenty miles."

The *object* may be omitted; as, "The leaves were scattered around [us.]" In such cases, the preposition is usually called an adverb.

(3.) In *elements of the third class*. The *connective* may be omitted in substantive clauses in the objective; as, "My heart whispers [that] God is nigh." In adjective clauses when the relative is in the objective; as, "The paper [which] we purchased is damaged." "The house [which] we went to stands on a hill."

The *subject* and *copula* in expressions like "If [it is] possible, if necessary, if convenient, when agreeable, while absent," &c.

The *whole clause* between *as* and *if, as* and *though*; as, "He seemed as [he would seem] if [he were] deranged."

4. In *exclamatory* sentences, in *responsives*, in *inscriptions*, and *titles*; as, "[It is] strange!" "Whom did you see? [I saw] George." "[This is] the New Testament."

Pleonasm is the use of superfluous words; as, "I know *thee who thou art*."

Pleonasm is the opposite of ellipsis, and may be said, in general, to take place where ellipsis should, but does not, take place.

Pleonasm takes place, —

(1.) When the same idea is repeated in the same or in different words; as, "*Verily, verily*, I say unto you." "All ye *inhabitants* of the world, and *dwellers on the earth*."

(2.) When a noun is introduced into a sentence, and then immediately represented in the same relation by a pronoun; as, "Now *Harry* he had long suspected."

(3.) When a noun or any other word is repeated in the same relation for the purpose of modifying it; as, "That *great God* whom you see me daily worship: — * — * — *that God* who created the heavens and the earth; — * — * — *this God* who has done all these great things — * — * — *this great God*, the Creator of worlds, of angels, and men, is your Father and Friend."

Enallage is a change of one part of speech for another. or some modification of a word for another; as, "They fall *successive* [ly] and *successive* [ly] rise." So when a single

individual says, "*We* have done so and so," he uses the plural number for the singular.

Hyperbaton is the transposition of words; as, "*While its song rolls the woods along.*"

EXERCISE.

Supply the words omitted by *ellipsis* in the following:—

Cassius.	I am a soldier, I, Older in practice, abler than yourself To make conditions.
Brutus.	Go to! you're not, Cassius.
Cas.	I am.
Bru.	I say you are not.

Write or repeat the following, leaving out all words which may be omitted:—

If it is possible, I will come. What would be the consequence though we tarry?

Tell what figures occur in the following examples:—

Anxiously did we watch every movement. Dark burned the candle. For Renard close attended at his heels. Sometimes with early morn, he mounted gay. Seven circling planets we behold. He speaks as if he were sick. Say, burst they borrowed from her father's wounds these drops?

FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

A figure of Rhetoric is a deviation from the ordinary application of a word; it is commonly called a *trope*.

Metaphor gives to an object the appropriate name of another object, on account of a resemblance between them; as, "Man! thou *pendulum* betwixt a smile and tear."

Simile is a formal comparison, introduced by *like*, *as*, or *so*; as, "He shall be *like a tree* planted by the rivers of water."

An *Allegory* is a continued metaphor, forming a kind of parable or fable. For examples, see *Pilgrim's Progress*. See also the eightieth Psalm.


Personification attributes to inanimate objects some of the qualities of living beings; as, "The sky *saddens* with the gathered storm"

Metonymy is a change of name; as, "You will address the *chair*;" i. e., the *president*.

Vision represents imaginary objects as real and present to the senses · as, —

"See lofty Lebanon his head advance;
See nodding forests on the mountains dance."

Synecdoche is the use of a part for the whole, or the whole for a part, as a *sail* for a *ship*, a *roof* for a *house*, the *head* for the *person*.

Irony is the use of a word for its opposite; as, "He was as *virtuous* as Nero;" , as *vile* as Nero.

Antithesis is the placing of contrary or opposite objects in contrast; as, "*Immortal*, though *no more*; though *fallen*, *great*."

Hyperbole magnifies or diminishes an object beyond the truth; as, "*Rivers* of water run down mine eyes, because they keep not thy law."

Exclamation is used to express some strong emotion of the mind; as, "O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and the knowledge of God!"

Interrogation is used to express a strong affirmation under the form of a question; as, "Hath he said it, and will he not do it?"

Apostrophe is a turning off from the subject to address some other person or thing; as, "Death is swallowed up in victory. O Death, where is thy sting? O Grave, where is thy victory?"

Climax is a series of members in a sentence, each rising in importance above the preceding.

EXAMPLE.

"What hope is there remaining of liberty, if whatever is their pleasure it is lawful for them to do; if whatever it is lawful for them to do, they are able to do; if what they are able to do, they dare to do; if what they dare to do, they really execute; and if what they execute is no way offensive to you?"

EXERCISE.

Point out the figures in the following :—

“Yet at thy call the hardy tar pursued,
Pale, but intrepid; sad, but unsubdued.”

He has at last assumed the *sceptre*. The power of appointment is vested in the *crown*. The garrison was put to the *sword*. In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat thy *bread*. The *sea* saw it and fled. Joseph is a fruitful *bough*. Devotion is a delicate and tender *plant*. A virtuous man, slandered by evil tongues, is like a diamond obscured by smoke. I will be to her a *wall* of fire. What *ailed* thee, O thou *sea*, that thou *fleddest*? They are *swifter than eagles*, they are *stronger than lions*. Read 1 Kings, xviii. 27, and explain the figure. Canst thou by searching find out God? Canst thou find out the Almighty unto perfection? What a piece of work is man! how noble in reason! how infinite in faculties! in action, how like an angel! in apprehension, how like a God.

III. IDIOMATIC CONSTRUCTIONS.

NOTE.—The following examples are intended to draw the attention of the teacher to the various idiomatic peculiarities in the constructions which follow certain words or forms of words, and not to be a complete system which exhausts the subject.

1. The *perfect tenses*, and generally the tenses of the *progressive* form, are followed by some *phrase* or *clause* used to specify the time to which they relate; as, “I had finished my letter *before you came*.”

2. The *comparative degree* is followed, —

(1.) By an *adverbial clause* introduced by *than*, when both the compared objects are distinctly named; as, “The *ash* is taller than the *oak* [is.]”

(2.) By a *phrase* (preposition of) when one of the compared objects is distinctly named, and the other is involved in a general term which includes both; as, “The *ash* is the taller of the two *trees*.”

3. The *superlative degree* is followed by a phrase, (prep. of,) and shows a comparison between a single object distinctly named, and all other objects with which it is compared; as, “*Achilles* was the bravest of the *Greeks*.”

4. Many adjectives, as *able*, *unable*, — *necessary*, *unnecessary*, — *desirable*, *undesirable*, — *agreeable*, *disagreeable*, &c., are followed by an *infinitive*, or a *preposition* and its *object*, when in the positive degree. When in the comparative or superlative, they are also followed by the construction required by the above rules, (3 and 4, above;) as, “George was unwilling *to write*.” “George was more unwilling *to write than his sister*.”

5. The verb “to be,” when used to predicate existence

(and not as a copula,) is generally preceded by the expletive 'there,' and followed by its subject ; as, "*There* was light." When such a proposition is abridged, the expletive remains as, "God said, Let *there* be light." "*There* being no provisions, we were compelled to leave." "I am not sure of *ther* being a supply."

6. The verbs *tell, teach, say, wish, declare, order*, and, in general, those which denote some *state* or *act* of the mind, or some *declaration* or *statement*, are generally followed, —

(1.) By a *substantive clause* ; as, "I say, *that he was angry*."

(2.) By a *personal object* and an *infinitive*, which together are equivalent to a substantive clause abridged ; as, "I told *him to stop*."

7. *It* is always placed at the beginning of a sentence whose subject is an *infinitive*, (with or without its objective subject,) or a *substantive clause*, when the infinitive or clause is placed after the predicate ; as, "*For you to leave me* would be unkind" = *It* would be unkind *for you to leave me*. "*That this measure will prevail* is quite certain" = *It* is quite certain *that this measure will prevail*.

This idiom usually prevails when an *objective* clause becomes the subject by changing the preceding verb into the *passive* voice ; as, "I believe *that the resources of this country will go on increasing from year to year*" = *It* is believed *that the resources, &c.*

Another idiom in which "it" introduces a sentence occurs when we wish to bring forward a person or thing with emphasis. Instead of saying, "*Arnold* betrayed his country," we say, "*It was Arnold* that betrayed his country."

8. *Had* before *rather, as lief*, and *as well*, seems to be an auxiliary with the present tense, instead of the past participle of the verb ; as, "I *had* rather *be* a dog, and *bay* the moon." "I *had* as lief *go* as *stay*." "You *had* as well *stop*." Present usage substitutes *would*. Still these expressions are often found, and are to be disposed of. It seems most probable that what we call the present tense of the verb was originally an infinitive governed by *had* ; as, "I *had to go*," "

had to write ; ” but when the comparative *rather*, or *as lief*, was inserted, the “to” was dropped ; as, “*I had rather go*,” “*I had as lief write*,” “*You had as well go*.” *Would*, in the expressions, “*Would to God*,” “*Would God it were so*,” is a principal verb, equivalent to *desire*, or *wish*. It is *past* in form, but *present* in meaning.

9. The forms resulting from abridging dependent clauses afford many idiomatic difficulties. Most of these are explained under “Abridged Propositions.” The following are some of these forms :—

(1.) A predicate noun follows the infinitive, or participle of the copula without a subject, or with the subject changed to the possessive ; as, “To be a good *writer* requires much practice.” Here *writer* must be considered in the nominative, unless we supply the words, “*for one*” before it : if such were the construction, it would be in the objective. “I have no fear of *his* being an *idler*.” Here nothing can be supplied to control the case of *idler*. It was nominative before the clause was abridged, and nothing has changed its case.

(2.) “Give me something to fasten the door *with*.” Here it is not apparent how *with* should be disposed of. This idiom results from abridging the following proposition in *Italics* : “Give me something *with which I may fasten the door*” = Give me something *with which* to fasten the door = Give me something to fasten the door *with* [which].

(3.) Contrary to the general rule, the connective of the dependent clause is retained in such expressions ; as, I know not *what to do*, *where to go*, *when to stop*, *how to wait*, *with what to write*, *with which to remain* ; and in the above example, *which*, the subsequent term of the relation expressed by *with*, must be supplied.

10. Some difficulty arises from the facility with which, in English, a noun, without change of form, can be used as an adjective ; as, “An *iron* bar.” “A *variety* store.” Respecting such cases, it should be observed, —

(1.) That though the noun is used like an adjective, it is qualified (not by an adverb, as is the case with a real adjective, but) by an adjective ; as, “A *high pressure engine*,” not “A *high engine* ;” nor “A *highly pressure engine*.”

(2.) That this idiom may lead to ambiguous expressions, which can be avoided only by making a compound word of the two which should be united ; as, “A *white oak pail*.” “A *white mountain moose*.” Is it “a *white oak-pail*,” or “a *white-oak pail*” ? “A *white mountain-moose*,” or “A *white-mountain moose*” ? It often happens that the defining noun is joined to the other by a hyphen, thus forming a compound noun ; as, “*Barn-door*.” “*Brick-walk*.”

(3.) That sometimes a noun has an adjective termination, and then both forms may be used as adjectives, yet with very different effects ; as, “A *wooden house* ;” “A *wood house*.” “A *golden harvest* ;” “A *gold harvest*.”

(4.) That the noun thus used must be in the *singular* number; as, "A horse power," not "A horses power." "A foot pole," not "A feet pole."

(5.) That this last rule is observed even though a numeral adjective, which would otherwise require the following word to be plural, is added; as, "A forty horse power," not "A forty horses power."

(6.) That it is observed even in words which, otherwise used, have no singular form; as, "Bowel-complaint," not "Bowels-complaint." "Spectacle-maker," not "Spectacles-maker."

11. A very forcible idiom arises from the formation of an adjective out of a participle combined with some other word; as, *uninteresting*, *unimpeached*, *labor-saving*, *heaven-descended*. These words must be regarded as adjectives, and not participles, since they have no corresponding verbs.

IV. THE STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

In sentences containing more than one proposition, two kinds of structure prevail — the *loose*, and the *periodic*, or *compact*.

A *loose* sentence is one in which the parts are related in thought, but are wholly independent of each other in construction; as, "Three days they mourned over Carthage; on the fourth, his father died."

REM. 1. — The parts of a loose sentence are called its *members*. The members of a loose sentence may be *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*; as, "In the narrow plain they lie, and a dim ghost defends their tomb." "On that rising ground, where the green turf looks black with fire, yesterday stood a noble mansion; the owner had said in his heart, Here will I spend the evening of my days, and enjoy the fruit of my years of toil." "My name shall descend with mine inheritance, and my children's children shall sport under the trees which I have planted."

REM. 2. — The loose sentence is to be found chiefly among compound sentences.

A *compact* sentence, sometimes called *close*, is one in which the parts are closely united both in thought and construction; as, "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him."

REM. 1. — Compact sentences may be either *complex* or *compound*; as, "In order to succeed in their enterprises, it is necessary that they should put on, at least, the appearance of virtue." "Seek ye first the kingdom of God and his righteousness, and all these things shall be added unto you."

REM. 2. — Both loose and compact sentences may have connectives to combine their parts. When the connective is expressed, the union of the parts is considered closer than when it is omitted; and when correlatives are used, the union is still closer.

REM. 3. — In uttering a loose sentence, the voice should fall at the end of each member; in uttering a compact sentence, the voice should be kept up till the close.

EXERCISES.

Point out the loose and the compact sentences in the following examples :—

Morning rose in the east; the blue waters rolled in light. If the war should be unsuccessful, you will aggravate existing evils; if successful, your enemy will have no treasure left to give our merchants. The first losses will be confounded with much greater, and be forgotten.

The very men who charged the Indian war on the detention of the posts will call for no other proof than the recital of their own speeches. If I could find words for them, if my powers bore any proportion to my zeal, I would swell my voice to such a note of remonstrance, that it should reach every log house beyond the mountains.

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing written composition by means of points.

REM. 1. — Points, are used to separate either sentences or the elements of sentences. The elements, in by far the greater number of instances, are not separated at all. It is only when there is some peculiarity in the *structure, use, or condition* of an element that it is pointed off. Usually, the point is employed where the position of the words may lead to a wrong connection or dependence of words, and consequently to a misapprehension of the author's meaning: thus the following sentence may have several meanings according to the punctuation. James Johnson says he has written beautifully. James, Johnson says he has written beautifully. James Johnson, says he, has written beautifully. James Johnson says he has written "beautifully."

REM. 2. — Although a pause is usually made where a point is placed, the points mark rather the *sense* than the *pauses*. Sometimes no pause whatever should be made where a comma is required; as, "No, sir." "Yes, sir."

These points may be divided into two classes — those which separate the *elements* of a sentence, and those which separate *entire* sentences.

The following are the principal marks used in punctuation: —

The *comma* (,), the *semicolon* (;), the *colon* (:), the *dash* (—), the *parenthesis* (), the *period* (.), the *interrogation point* (?), and the *exclamation point* (!).

I. POINTS USED WITHIN A SENTENCE.

The Comma.

The comma is used principally to separate the elements of close sentences.

Three rules may be given for the use of the comma.

RULE I. When the elements of a sentence are *simple*, and are arranged in the natural order, they should not be separated; but when any element, whether simple or complex, is transposed, loosely connected, or used parenthetically, it should be pointed off.

EXAMPLES.

"Strong proofs, not a loud voice, produce conviction. The path of virtue is the path of peace. He lived, as he said, on a vegetable diet. False delicacy is affectation, not politeness. Intrinsically, the other is the most valuable. Self-denial is the sacrifice which virtue must make.

EXAMPLES to be punctuated according to Rule I.

Thy rod and thy staff they comfort me. Whoever firmly wills will be a good man. Light whether it be material or spiritual is the best reformer. He who teaches often learns himself. Cherish true patriotism which has its root in benevolence. Here comes his body mourned by Mark Antony. Study I beseech you to store your minds with the exquisite learning of former ages.

(1.) The following words and phrases are pointed off by this rule: *Again, besides, moreover, further, nay, hence, once more, as yet, first, secondly, lastly, namely, in short, in truth, in fact, in fine, in general, in particular, in the mean time, in the next place, on the contrary, without doubt, of course, for the most part, now and then, consequently, accordingly, unquestionably, indisputably, &c., &c.*

(2.) The nominative case independent, and several of the interjections, are separated by the comma; since they are not elements of the sentence, and consequently are not closely connected; as, "*My son*, hear the instructions of thy father." "*For, lo*, I will call all the families of the kingdoms of the north."

(3.) When a simple element of the third class is not closely connected, or used in a restrictive sense, it is punctuated by a comma, though arranged in the natural order; as, "*He will go, if it is possible.*"

EXAMPLES to be punctuated by the subordinate rules.

Punctuality is no doubt a quality of high importance. The most vigorous thinkers and writers are in fact self-taught. Unfortunately he thinks too highly of himself. Antonio light my lamp within my chamber. Boast not my dear friends of to-morrow. Come companion of my toils let us take fresh courage. Where thoughts kindle words spontaneously flow. Go where a man may home is the centre to which his heart turns. It were no virtue to bear calamities if we did not feel them.

RULE II. When an element is *complex*, and considerably extended, it should be pointed off by the comma.

EXAMPLES.

Remember your own feelings, *in order that you may judge of the feelings of others.* That a peculiar state of the mere particles of the brain should be followed by a change of the state of the sentient mind, is truly wonderful.

EXAMPLES to be punctuated according to Rule II.

Grace of manners is so essential to rulers that whenever it is neglected their virtues lose a great degree of lustre. The more highly we cultivate our minds here the better shall we be prepared for the nobler pursuits of the next stages of our existence. It had been better for them not to have known the way of righteousness than after they had known it to turn from the holy commandment committed to them.

(1.) By this rule, the complex subject of a simple sentence, when long, should be separated by the comma from the predicate; as, "*The intermixture of evil in society, seems to exercise the noblest virtues of the human soul.*"

(2.) The clauses of a complex sentence should be separated by the comma, where the subordinate clause is complex, and is not used in a restrictive sense; as, "We sometimes forget our faults, *when we are not reminded of them.*" Abridged clauses generally follow the same rule as complete clauses; as, "*Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.*"

(3.) A single noun in apposition with another, is not separated from it by a comma; as, "Paul *the apostle*;" but when the noun in apposition is limited by several words, the comma should be inserted; as, "Paul, *the apostle of the Gentiles.*"

(4.) When a sentence contains several extended adverbial elements, phrases, or clauses, they should be separated by the comma; as, "The ancients separated the corn *from the ear, by causing an ox to trample on the sheaves.*"

(5.) A short expression quoted, or used as a quotation, should be separated by the comma; as, "The first lesson of a judicious education is, *Learn to think and to discriminate*;" also the verbs, *say, reply*, and the like, with their dependent words, introducing a quotation or remark, are usually separated by the comma; as, "Ossian says, *That sorrow shades the soul of Clessammor.*"

EXAMPLES to be punctuated by the subordinate rules.

A government directing itself resolutely and steadily to the general good becomes a minister of virtue. He who sees a building as a common spectator contents himself with speaking of it. The word philosopher signifies lover of wisdom. The twin sisters Piety and Poetry are said to dwell together. Diogenes the Greek philosopher lived in a tub.

General Washington the first president of the United States was a true patriot a genuine lover of his country. The wise and good of every name are with diversity of gifts but the same spirit striving each in his own way to carry society forward into a healthier condition than the present.

Patrick Henry commenced by saying "It is natural to man to indulge in the illusions of hope."

There is much truth in the proverb "Without pains no gains."

RULE III. When an element is compound, the component parts are generally separated by the comma; as, "Some men sin *frequently, deliberately, and presumptuously.*"

EXAMPLES.

Beauty haunts the depths of the earth and sea, and gleams out in the hues of the shell and the precious stone. Speak as you mean, do as you profess, and perform what you promise. Has God provided for the poor a coarser earth a thinner air, a paler sky?

Suffering often calls forth our best feelings, and the highest energies of the mind.

EXAMPLES to be punctuated by Rule II.

Great moral principles pure and generous dispositions cannot be confined to this or that spot. The true worshipper of beauty sees it in the lowliest flower meets it in every path enjoys it every where. Get justly use soberly distribute cheerfully and live contentedly. The one had no more

reason than the other to repine at his fortune and war against mankind. To be wise in our own eyes to be wise in the opinion of the world and to be wise in the sight of our Creator seldom coincide.

(1.) When a compound element consists of but two simple elements, the parts should not be separated, unless the conjunction which connects them is understood; as, "*Peter and John* went up into the temple." "A *bold decisive* blow was struck."

(2.) When *or* denotes an alternative of words, and not ideas, the two connected words should be separated by the comma; as, "The *gulf*, or *bay*, is dangerous." Nearly allied to this construction is that in which the same word is repeated; as, "*Verily, verily*, I say unto you."

(3.) Two simple elements, so connected as to show opposition or contrast, should be pointed by the general rule; as, "Though *deep*, yet *clear*." "Though *fallen*, *great*."

(4.) If both elements are complex, and considerably extended, or if one is complex and the other is not, the comma may be placed between them. This rule applies particularly to the compound predicate; as, "He *left*, and *took* his brother with him."

(5.) When words are joined in pairs, the pairs are separated from each other, but not the words composing them; as, "*Hope* and *fear*, *pleasure* and *pain*, diversify our lives."

(6.) When the conjunction which connects two elements is omitted, the comma takes its place; as, "Thomas is a *plain, honest* man." So, also, when a verb is understood, the comma takes its place; as, "From law arises security; from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge."

(7.) When the connected parts are clauses, whether coordinate or subordinate, and are closely united, they should be separated by the comma as, "Life is short, and art is long." "I neither knew *what I was*, *where I was*, nor from *whence I came*."

EXAMPLES to be punctuated by the subordinate rule.

A healthy body and a sound mind should be preserved as real blessings. Some men would be distinguished in their occupation or pursuit or profession or in the style of living or in the dignity of office or in the glare and pride and pomp of power. Truth is fair and artless simple and sincere uniform and consistent. A wise man seeks to shine in himself; a fool to outshine others. The benevolent man is esteemed; the penurious despised. We are fearfully and wonderfully made. He departed and hope departed with him.

The Colon and Semicolon.

The *colon* and *semicolon* are used chiefly to separate the members of a loose sentence

EXAMPLES.

Make a proper use of your time; for the loss of it can never be regained. The noblest prophets and apostles have been children once; lisping the speech, laughing the laugh, thinking the thought of boyhood. Stones grow; vegetables grow and live; animals grow, live, and feel. Cowards die many times; the valiant never taste of death.

REM. 1.—The colon is now but little used, except before examples for

lowing the expressions *as follows*, the following examples, in these words, &c.; as; "Perform the following exercises:" "He used these words Mr. President:" &c. It is also used to separate the terms of a proportion; as, "A : B :: C : D."

REM. 2. — When, in a complex sentence, several subordinate clauses are united to each other, having a common dependence upon the principal clause, they are separated by the semicolon; as, "Philosophers assert that Nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that future generations will continue to make discoveries."

EXERCISE.

Insert the comma, the semicolon, and the colon where they are required in the following examples :—

Never value yourself upon your fortune for this is the sign of a weak mind. Pope had perhaps the judgment of Dryden but Dryden certainly wanted the diligence of Pope. The great tendency and purpose of poetry is to carry the mind above and beyond the beaten dusty weary walks of ordinary life to lift it into a purer element and to breathe into it more profound and generous emotion. Write on your slates the following example Mary and John will go. The great and good were there. Endeavor to excel much may be accomplished by perseverance.

The Dash and Parenthesis.

The *dash* is used where there is a significant pause, an unexpected transition in the sentence, or where a sentence is left unfinished; as, "He sometimes counsel takes — and sometimes snuff." "But I must first —."

REM. — The dash is now frequently used instead of the parenthesis; as, "The colonists — such is human nature — desired to burn the town in which they had been so wretched."

The *parenthesis* is used to enclose a part of a sentence not necessary to the construction, but in some way explanatory of the meaning of the sentence; as, "Consider (and may the consideration sink deep into your hearts) the fatal consequences of a wicked life."

EXERCISE.

Insert the dash and the parenthesis where they are required in the following examples :—

Horror burst the bands of sleep; but my feelings words are too weak, too powerless to express them. The Egyptian style of architecture see

Dr. Pocock, not his discourses but his prints was apparently the mother of the Greek. While they wished to please, and why should they not wish it, they disdained dishonorable means. If thou art he, so much respected once but, O, how fallen ! how degraded !

II. POINTS USED AT THE CLOSE OF A SENTENCE.

The Period.

The *period* is used at the close of a declarative or an imperative sentence. It is also used to denote an abbreviation.

EXAMPLES.

Knowledge is not only pleasant, but useful and honorable. Let what you have gained be an impulse to something higher. If you will, you can rise. The age of MSS. is, in some instances, known by dates inserted in them. I was invited to meet Mr. and Mrs. Clifford.

EXERCISE.

Insert the period where it is required in the following examples :—

Truth is the basis of every virtue It is the voice of reason Let its precepts be religiously obeyed Never transgress its limits Abhor a falsehood I would say to the people, You cannot, without guilt and disgrace, stop where you are The oration was delivered by J L Thompson, Esq The event occurred B C 1001 To R H Dana Jun Esq the well-known author of "Two Years before the Mast," the community are greatly indebted But the seasons are not alike in all countries of the same region, for the reasons already given See Chap VI § 2 ¶ 4 p 330

Interrogation Point.

An *interrogation point* is used at the close of a question, as, "Who comes there ?"

REM.—When an interrogative sentence is used as a subordinate clause,—

(1.) The interrogation point is employed when the clause is quoted directly; as, "He said, Why do you weep ?"

(2.) The interrogation point is not employed where the clause is quoted indirectly; as, "He asked me why I wept."

Exclamation Point.

An *exclamation point* is used at the close of an exclamatory sentence; as, "How unsearchable are his ways !"

REM.—An exclamation point is often used within a sentence, after an exclamatory expression or an interjection; as, "O, Jove Supreme! whom men and gods revere!" "O! let soft pity touch the mind!"

EXERCISES.

Insert interrogation and exclamation points where they are required in the following examples:—

Daughter of Faith awake arise illumine the dread unknown the chaos of the tomb Whither shall I turn Wretch that I am To what place shall I betake myself O Pascal thou wert pure in heart in this world, and now thou art in full sight of God. Apostles of liberty what millions attest the authenticity of your mission. Did she fall like Lucifer, never to hope again To purchase heaven has gold the power Who shall separate us from the love of Christ What kill thy friend who lent thee money, for asking thee for it The secret I implore: out with it speak discover utter

Punctuate correctly in all respects the following examples:—

What a piece of work is man How noble in reason how infinite in faculties in form and moving how express and admirable in action how like an angel in apprehension how like a God The air was mild as summer all corn was off the ground and the skylarks were singing aloud by the way I saw not one at Keswick perhaps because the place abounds in birds of prey Dr H Marsh F R S &c Bishop of Peterborough b 1757 d 1839 As the pupil is often obliged to bend all his faculties to the task before him and tears sometimes fall on the page he is studying so it is in the school of God's providence there are hard lessons in it When the poor victims were bayoneted clinging round the knees of the soldiers would my friend but I could not pursue the strain of my interrogation

OTHER MARKS USED IN WRITING.

Brackets ([]) are used when a word or phrase is introduced for explanation or connection; as, "He [the teacher] thus explained the difficulty."

The **Apostrophe** (') is used either to denote the possessive case, or the omission of a letter; as, "John's." "O'er."

The **Quotation Marks** (" ") are used to include a passage taken verbatim from some other author; as, "He said, 'I relinquish my claim.'"

The **Asterisk** (*), the **Obelisk** (†), the **Double Dagger** (‡), and the **Parallels** (||) are used to refer to notes in the margin, or at the bottom of the page. Sometimes the **Section** (§) and the **Paragraph** (¶) are used. Also small letters, or figures, which refer to notes at the foot of the page.

The **Caret** (^) is used in writing to show that some letter, word, or phrase has been omitted ; as, " The pencil lies ^{on} ^ the table."

The **Hyphen** (-) is used to separate the parts of a compound word ; as, " Book-binder." When placed at the end of a line, it shows that a word is divided, the remaining part being carried to the next line.

The **Ellipsis** (* * *) (—) is used to denote the omission of certain letters or words ; as, " C * * * IL" " K—g."

The **Brace** { connects a number of words with one common term.

The **Index** () points to some remarkable passage.

The **Section** (§) also denotes the divisions of a treatise.

A **Paragraph** (¶) also denotes the beginning of a new subject.

The vowel marks are the **Diæresis** (¨), placed over the second of two vowels which are separated ; the **Long** sound (-), placed over a long vowel ; the **Breve** or **Short** sound (ˇ), placed over a short vowel ; and accents, **Grave** (`), **Acute** ('), and **Circumflex** (^).

Rem. — The best practical exercises on all these marks and points will be given by the teacher. Let the pupil be required to construct sentences requiring the use of them ; or let the teacher read from some book, any passage which demands the use of them, and let the class be required to insert them in their proper places.

PROSODY.

Prosody treats of the laws of versification.

VERSE.

A *verse* is a succession of accented and unaccented syllables, constituting a line of poetry.

A *couplet* is the combination of two lines or verses. *triplet* consists of three lines.

A *stanza* is the combination of several lines forming a division of a poem or song.

REM. — *Verse* is sometimes erroneously applied to a stanza.

Verse is of two kinds — *rhyme* and *blank verse*.

Rhyme is the correspondence of the last sound of one verse to that of another.

Blank verse is verse without rhyme.

FEET.

A *foot* is a portion of verse containing two or more syllables, combined according to accent.

REM. 1. — The *quantity* of a syllable is the time employed in uttering it. All syllables are either *long* or *short*.

REM. 2. — In English, an accented syllable is considered *long*; and an unaccented, *short*.

REM. 3. — A straight line (—) over a syllable shows that it is accented, and a curved line (∪) that it is unaccented.

The principal feet in English are the *iambus*, the *trochee*, the *anapest*, and the *dactyl*.

The *iambus* consists of a short and a long syllable; as, “*invîte*,” “*děvôte*,” “*běnign*.”

The *trochee* consists of a long and a short syllable; as, “*grätefŭl*,” “*griěvoŭs*.”

The *anapest* consists of two short syllables and one long one; as, “*incōmplēte*,” “*ānděscēnd*.”

The *dactyl* consists of one long syllable and two short ones; as, "*positive*," "*loneliness*."

REM. 1. — Besides the kinds of feet mentioned above, four others sometimes occur — the *pyrrhic* and the *spondee*, the *amphibrach* and the *tribrach*. The *pyrrhic* consists of two short, and the *spondee* of two long syllables; as, "*in the (vale;)*" "*vain man*." The *amphibrach* has three syllables, of which the first and third are short, the second is long; as, "*contentment*." The *tribrach* consists of three short syllables; as, "*(innu)merable*."

REM. 2. — These last four feet are seldom found in English poetry. They sometimes mingle with other feet, and give thereby a pleasing variety; as,

"From peak | to peak | the rat- | tling crags | among.

Leaps the | live thin- | der! not | from one | lone cloud."

Here the first foot is a *trochee*, and the second is a *spondee*. They occur in a single verse of an iambic poem.

EXERCISES.

What foot does each of the following words contain:—

Absent, control, viewing, darkness, complete, correct, glory, reproduce, indite, reconstruct, compose, gloriously, positive, acquiesce, reunite, beautiful, sweetest, comforter, overcome, churlishness, nourishing, intercede, foolishness.

Prefix one or more words to the following, so as to make a phrase consisting of two iambic feet, thus:—

"A new supply. — defeat. — disgrace. — accord.
— proclaims. — commends. — divine. — entreats.
— believes.

A line consisting of one foot is called *monometer*; of two, *dimeter*; of three, *trimeter*; of four, *tetrameter*; of five, *pentameter*; of six, *hexameter*; of seven, *heptameter*.

REM. — When a syllable is wanting, the line is said to be *catalectic*; when the measure is full, the line is *acatalectic*; when there is a redundant syllable, it is called *hypermeter*.

SCANNING.

Scanning consists in dividing a verse into the feet which compose it.

IAMBIC VERSE.

1. *Example of one line — monometer*:—

Thy go
To sow.

2. *Iambic of two feet — dimeter : —*

Tò mē | thē rōse
No longer glows.

3. *Iambic of three feet — trimeter : —*

Nō rōy | āl pōmp | ādōrns
This King of righteousness.

4. *Iambic of four feet — tetrameter : —*

And cōld | ēr still | thē winds | did blōw,
And darker hours of night came on.

5. *Iambic of five feet — pentameter : —*

On rift- | ēd rōcks, | thē drāg- | ōn's lāte | ābodes,
The green reed trembles, and the bulrush nods.

6. *Iambic of six feet — hexameter : —*

Hīs heart | ȳ sād, | hīs hōpe | ȳ gōne, | hīs light | ȳ pāsēd;
He sits and mourns in silent grief the lingering day.

7. *Iambic of seven feet — heptameter : —*

Thē lōf- | tȳ hill, | thē hūm- | blē lāwn, | with cōunt- | lēss beaū- |
ties shine.
The silent grove, the solemn shade, proclaim thy power divine.

Iambic of five feet is called *heroic* verse ; that of six feet is called *Alexandrine*.

Iambic of seven feet is commonly divided into two lines — the first containing four feet, the second three. This is called *common metre* ; as,

The lofty hill, the humble lawn,
With countless beauties shine ;
The silent grove, the solemn shade,
Proclaim thy power divine.

In *long metre*, each line has four iambic feet ; in *short metre*, the first, second, and fourth lines contain three iambic feet, the third four.

Each species of iambic verse may have one additional short syllable, thus : —

1. Rēlēt- | ȳng.
2. Upōn | ā mōun- | tāln.
3. Whēn ōn | hēr Mā- | kēr's bō- | sōm.
4. Fīrst this | lārgē pār- | cēl brings | yōu ti- | dīngs.
5. Eāch sūb- | stānce ōf | ā grief | hāth twēn- | tȳ shād- | ōws.
6. Thīne ēye | Jōve's light- | nīng sēems | thȳ voice | hīs drēad- | fīl
thūn- | dēr.
7. Hōw gāi- | lȳ ā- | vēr fēll | ānd fēn | yōn spōrts- | mān light | ȳ
dāsh- | ȳng !

TROCHAIC VERSE.

1. *Trochaic of one foot* :—

Chánging
Ranging.

2. *Trochaic of two feet* :—

Fáncy | viéwing,
Joys ensuing.

3. *Trochaic of three feet* :—

Gó whère | glóry | wáits thée.
But when fame elates thee.

4. *Trochaic of four feet* :—

Róund á | hóly | cálm díf- | fúsing,
Love of peace and lonely musing.

5. *Trochaic of five feet* :—

All thát | wálk ón | fót ór | ríde ín | chárléts,
All that dwell in palaces or garrets.

6. *Trochaic of six feet* :—

On á | móuntáin | strétched, bē- | néath á | hóary | willów,
Lay a shepherd swain, and viewed the rolling billow.

In trochaic verse, the accent is placed upon the odd syllables ; in iambic, on the even.

Trochaic verse may take an additional long syllable ; as,

1. Whère we | máy
Think and pray.

2. And áť | mórn thēy | play,
In the foaming-spray.

3. Heaving | upward | to the | light.

4. O'er the | past too | fondly | wander- | ing.

5. Reared 'mid | fauns and | fairies, | knew he | no com- | peers.

6. Casting | down their | golden | crowns a- | round the | glassy | sea.

ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

1. *Anapæstic of one foot* :—

Bút ín váin
They complain.

2. *Anapæstic of two feet* :—

Whère thē sūn | lóves tō páuse
With so fond a delay.

3. *Anapæstic of three feet* :—

Fróm thē cén- | trē, áll róund | tō thē sēa,
I'm lord of the fowl and the brute.

4. *Anapæstic of four feet* :—

At the close | of the day, | when the hām- | let is still,
And mortals the sweets of forgetfulness prove.

In anapæstic verse, the accent falls on every third syllable.
The first foot of an anapæstic verse may be an iambus ; as,

And mōr- | tals the sweets | of fōrgēt- | fulness prove.

DACTYLIC VERSE.

1. *Dactylic of one foot* :—

Cheerfully,
Fearfully.

2. *Dactylic of two feet* :—

Free from anx- | iety,
Care and satiety.

3. *Dactylic of three feet* :—

Wearing a- | way in his | youthfulness,
Loveliness, beauty, and truthfulness.

4. *Dactylic of four feet* :—

Boys will an- | ticpāte, | lavish, and | dissipate
All that your busy pate hoarded with care.

Few poems are perfectly regular in their feet. The different kinds of feet are often mingled in the same verse, thus :—

I cōme, | I cōme ; | yē hāve called | mē lōng ;
I cōme | o'er the mōun- | tains with light | and sōng.

POETIC PAUSES.

Besides the pauses required by the sense or grammatical construction of verse, two pauses — the *final* and *casural* — may also occur.

The *final* pause occurs at the end of each line, whether the sense requires it or not.

The *casural* pause occurs within the line itself, and is only a suspension of the voice ; as,

“ Ask for what *end* — the heavenly bodies shine.”

EXERCISES.

Construct a line to rhyme with the following :—

"The soldier marched upon the burning sand,"

"Soft the breeze in yonder vale,"

"The leaves are falling one by one,"

Scan the following, and tell what kind of verse it is :—

"When all thy mercies, O my God !
My rising soul surveys,
Transported with the view, I'm lost
In wonder, love, and praise."

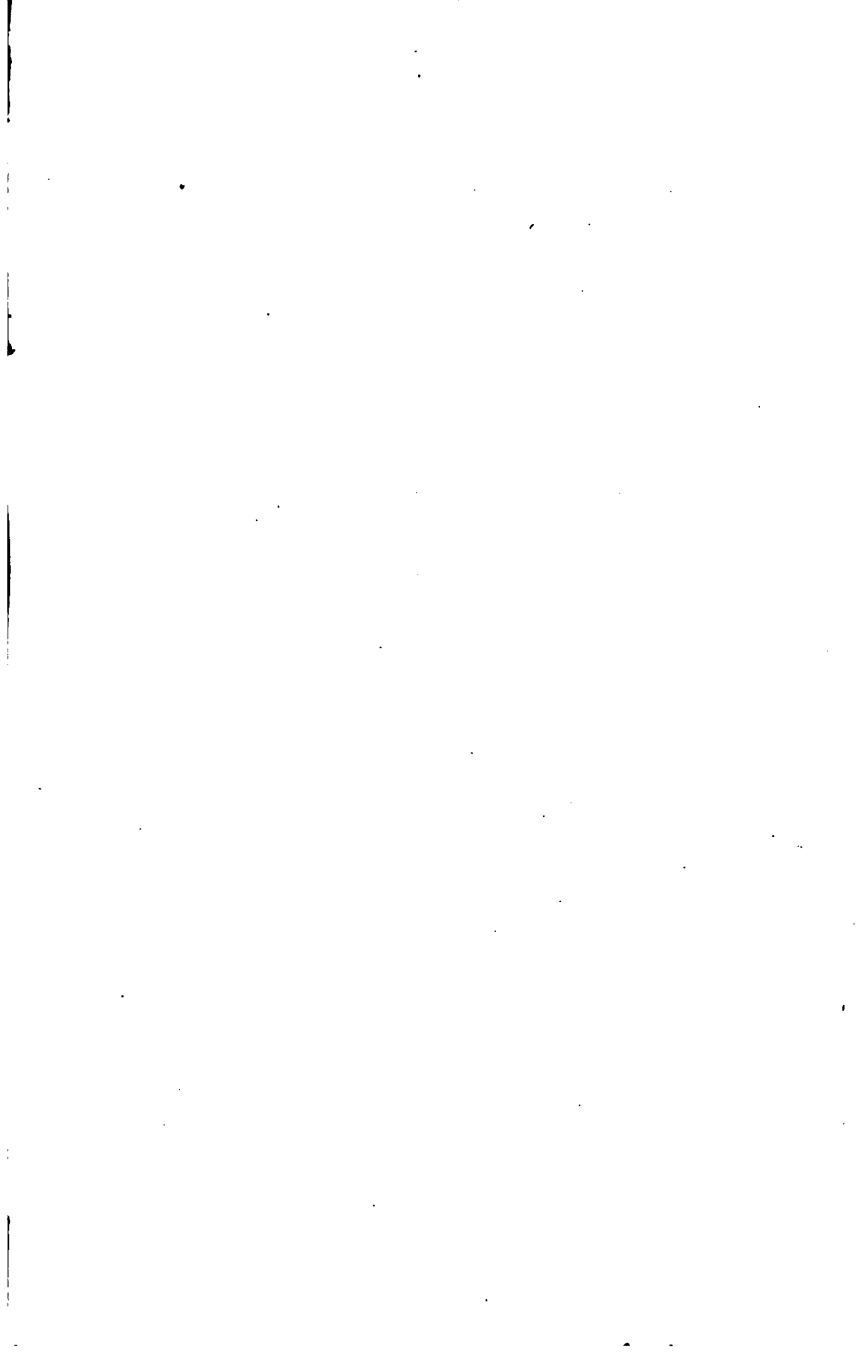
"From Greenland's icy mountains,
From India's coral strand,
Where Afric's sunny fountains
Roll down their golden sand ;
From many an ancient river,
From many a palmy plain,
They call us to deliver
Their land from error's chain."

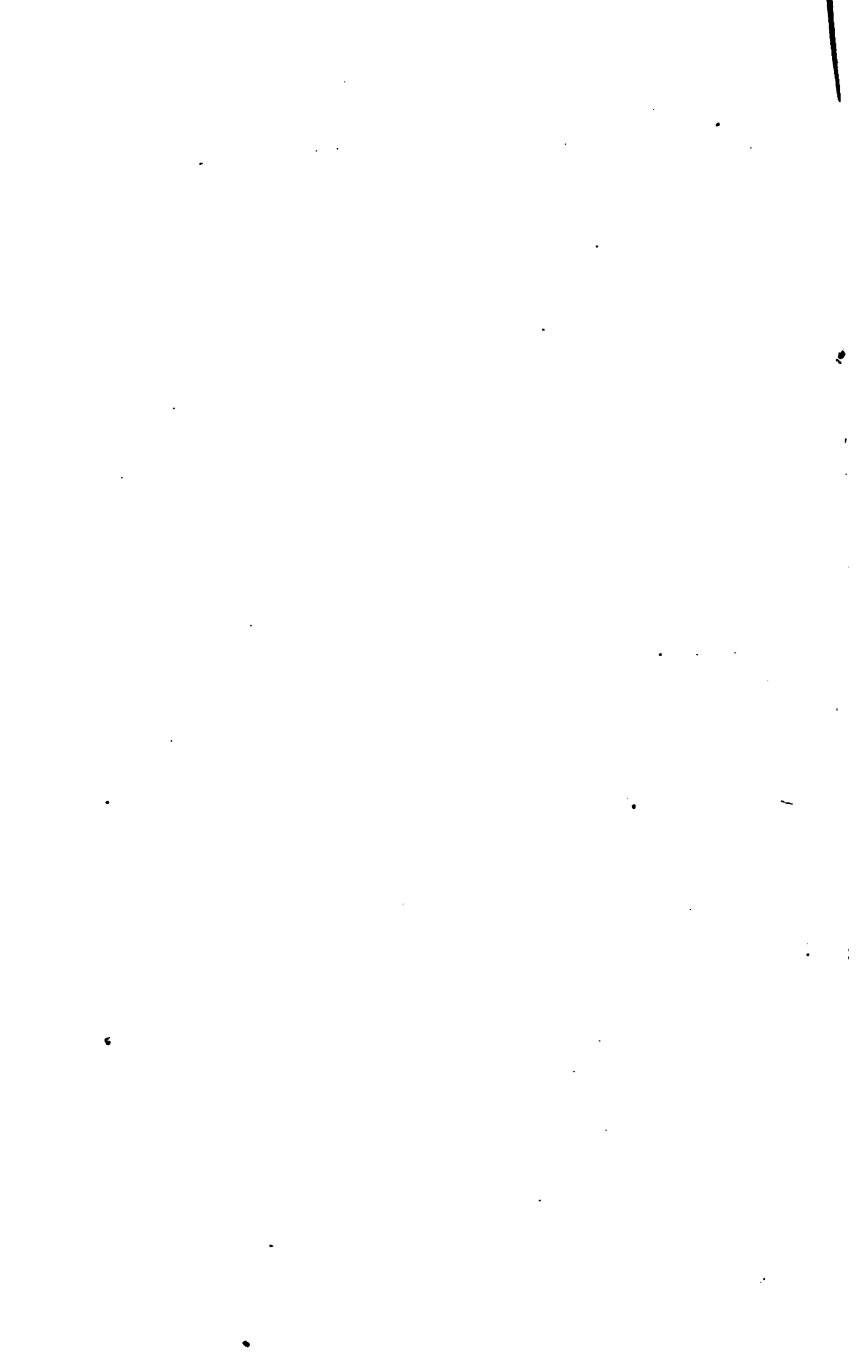
"The morn is up again, the dewy morn,
With breath all incense, and with cheek all bloom
Laughing the clouds away, with playful scorn,
And living as if earth contained no tomb, —
And glowing into day : we may resume
The march of our existence : and thus I,
Still on thy shores, fair Leman ! may find room
And food for meditation, nor pass by
Much that may give us pause, if pondered fittingly."

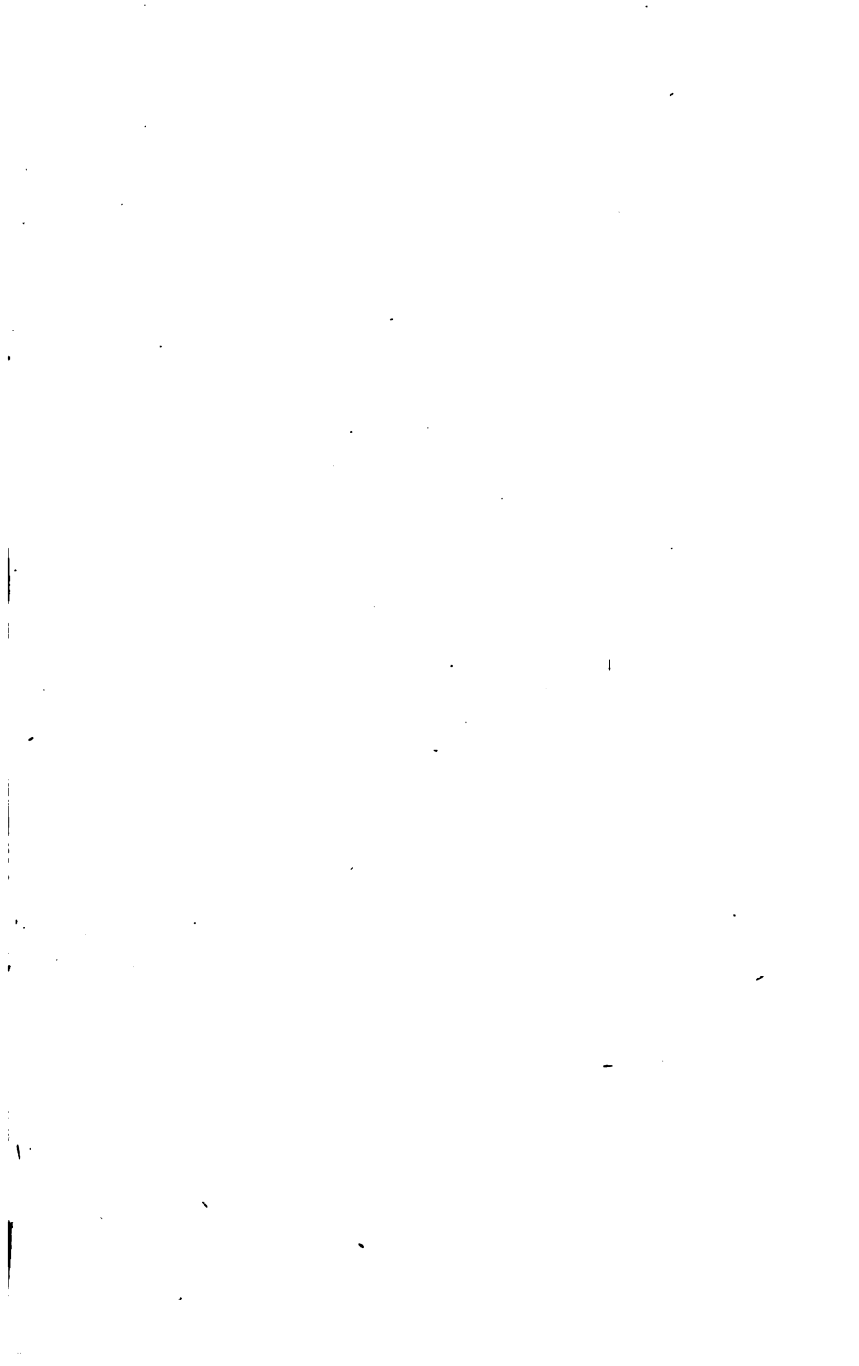
"Hail, holy light, offspring of heaven first born,
Or of th' eternal co-eternal beam !
May I express thee unblamed ? since God is light,
And never but in unapproached light
Dwelt from eternity, dwelt then in thee,
Bright effluence of bright essence increate.
Or hear'st thou rather pure ethereal stream,
Whose fountain who shall tell ?"

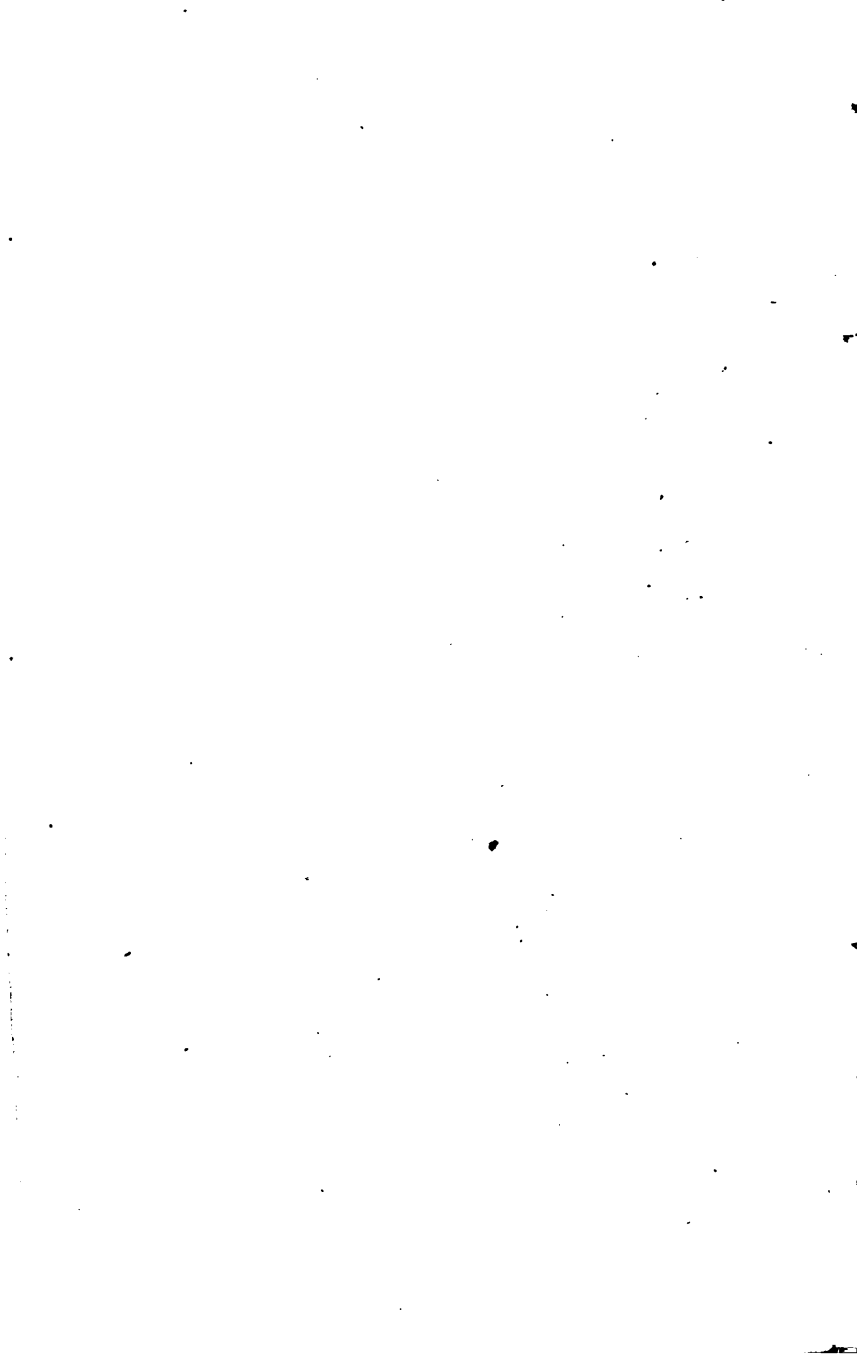
"Ye nymphs of Solyma ! begin the song ;
To heavenly themes sublimer strains belong.
The mossy fountains and the sylvan shades,
The dreams of Pindus and th' Aonian maids,
Delight no more ! O thou my voice inspire,
Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire !"

FINIS.

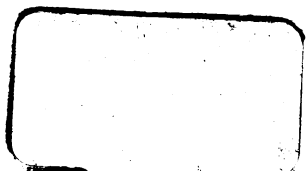








one m
ml



H. COWPERTHWAIT & CO.,
BOOKSELLERS AND PUBLISHERS,
PHILADELPHIA,

Have for sale a large stock of Books in every department of knowledge. Their supply of School Books, of their own publication and of others is constantly great; and they are prepared, at all times, to supply readers on the most favorable terms.

Among their valuable publications are the *Belmont's School Reader*

MITCHELL'S SERIES OF SCHOOL GEOGRAPHIES.

SWAN'S SERIES OF SCHOOL READERS AND SPELLERS.

GREENE'S GRAMMATICAL SERIES.

BERNARD'S HISTORY.

A School History of the United States, by E. Bernard.

This work is very beautifully illustrated, entirely from original designs. It is written in an attractive style, and presents the prominent events of our country's history in an pleasing manner, that it cannot fail greatly to interest and instruct the pupil.

ARITHMETIC AND ITS APPLICATIONS;

Designed as a text-book for Common Schools, High Schools, and Academies, by DANIEL P. THOMAS.

This work contains many new and original features, and is warmly commended by teachers who have given it an examination.

PICOT'S SERIES OF FRENCH BOOKS.

URQUILLU'S SPANISH GRAMMAR.
URQUILLU'S GRAMMATICA INGLESA.

JARVIS'S PHYSIOLOGIES.

PRACTICAL PHYSIOLOGY; or, Anatomy and Physiology applied to Health. For the use of Schools and Families. Revised Edition, with Seventy Engravings.

PRIMARY PHYSIOLOGY; with numerous Illustrations. Designed for the use of Schools.

These books are intended to be extensively practical. They describe only those organs and teach only those principles, which are necessary to be known for the correct management of our system, the maintenance of health, and the preservation of life.